

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 3, 1887.

The Week.

A GREAT many strange things have happened to the Democratic party during the past thirty years, besides the nomination of Horace Greeley for the Presidency, but probably nothing stranger than the suppression, at a Democratic dinner, of a letter from a Democratic statesman recommending the party to take up the cause of individual freedom against the tyranny of secret societies, composed of "irresponsible men unknown to the people, who are not officers chosen by the people, and who are not creatures of law responsible to free public opinion and to the constituted authorities for their action," and who make a practice of coercing citizens into joining their society by trying to prevent their earning a living, "by calling them opprobrious names, hunting them from shop to shop, and denying them employment on the fearful penalty of stopping all work, however pressing and important." This is the description given by Mayor Hewitt of the condition of a large body of American citizens known in the slang of the day as "Scabs." Their lives are literally lives of slavery. Every injury that can be done to them short of murder is openly justified by their tyrants. Moreover, they constitute the great majority of the class of manual laborers, and their oppressors are enabled to hold them in subjection owing to the fact that they are not organized, and rely solely on the law of the land and on public opinion for liberty and security.

The most careless reader of the history of the Democratic party would suppose that, in the prevailing scarcity of issues, it would eagerly take up the cause of this oppressed and outraged portion of the community, and smash the secret organizations which are seeking, before the Constitution is one hundred years old, to supplant or override the Government, and inflict the most fearful penalties without judge or jury. The party took its rise, almost as soon as the Government was founded, as the champion and defender of the rights of the individual against thrones, principalities, and powers of every description. "A man's a man for a' that" was its motto from the very beginning, especially if he was a white man. It has been preaching, in season and out of season, for eighty years, through all its sages and prophets, the doctrine that the larger the liberty of the individual man, and the less he was interfered with by government of any kind, the better for the community at large. Nevertheless, in our time, we are actually witnessing the strange spectacle, to which Mr. Hewitt has called attention, of "Democrats, holding very high positions, coquetting with this new and dangerous element in politics, and even attaining office by submitting to the humiliation of an apparent endorsement of the false and dangerous doctrines which have been put in practice at such fearful cost in our own midst within the present month."

There is no limit to the inebrieties of the official mind when once the habit is formed of indulging in Labor as a beverage. The saddest example is that of Gov. Hill, but he has many imitators in the Legislature, some of whom have been overcome to the extent of introducing a bill (Senate bill No. 65) making every Saturday in the year a legal holiday. Others, not quite so far advanced, have stopped at the point of making every Saturday a half-holiday, their views being embodied in Senate bill No. 70. There is no requirement in either of these bills that anybody shall stop working on Saturday, or desist from doing anything that he would do if Saturday were not a holiday. The banks, and the Stock Exchange, and the Clearing-house, and every business place may go on the same as before, and will go on unless a streak of idleness comes over the American people, which is now quite unexpected. The only thing either of these bills can do is to put obstacles and confusion of a legal sort into the pathway of business men, by making them pay their notes, and draw money out of the banks, and fulfil their contracts, twenty-four or forty-eight hours before the time agreed on. This is the only thing really compulsory in the bill. There are now six legal holidays in each year. It is proposed to add fifty-two more, not to relieve anybody from work, but merely to serve as fifty-two tubs to the whale, constructed and launched at the expense and loss of the business community. How great this loss must be, we can infer from the fact that the payments effected at the Clearing-house in this city amount to more than one hundred million dollars per day, and that it is proposed to require them to be made a day earlier than the contract of payment requires on fifty-two days in the year: *i. e.*, one day's interest on \$5,200,000,000 is to be juggled with at the behest of Labor and without doing Labor any good. As New York is the general clearing-house for the whole country, the inconvenience and loss resulting from such a local measure would be spread abroad everywhere, and must result in diverting trade more or less from a place where such needless and wanton impediments are put in the way of commerce.

The question of passing the Pauper Pension Bill over the veto came up for decision in the House on Thursday afternoon, and the President was sustained by twenty-five more than the requisite number of Representatives. The total vote was 300, and 200 yeas would have been required to pass the bill, "the President's objections to the contrary notwithstanding," whereas only 175 were recorded in the affirmative, against 125 in the negative. Upon the original passage of the bill the vote stood 180 yeas to 76 nays, or considerably more than two-thirds in the affirmative. The final defeat of the measure is thus due to the changes produced by the President's attitude, no less than twenty-eight members who had hastily voted for the bill on its first passage having the manliness

to confess their blunder and vote against it on Thursday. The significant feature of the division is the fact that the Republican vote in the House was cast solidly for the bill. It was so cast deliberately. When the bill first came up its vicious character was not generally understood, and it was supposed that public sentiment would sustain it. There was thus some excuse for the unanimous Republican vote in its favor originally; but, during the four weeks which have since passed, that excuse has been removed. The demoralizing nature of the measure has been exposed, and the leading Republican newspapers of the country, almost without exception, have condemned it in the most severe terms. With like approach to unanimity, the Republican press has endorsed the veto, and warned Republican Congressmen that the public sentiment of the country would sustain the President. The pretence that self-respecting soldiers—and the opinion of others is worthless—desired such a bill, has been swept away by the vigorous protests against the measure of such eminent Republican generals as Chamberlain of Maine and Cox of Ohio.

The President continues to veto private pension bills in unworthy cases. His latest message returns without his approval the bill granting a pension to Mrs. Sarah Hamilton, on the ground that her deceased husband died in 1883 of disability incurred in the army twenty years before. The widow's application was originally rejected upon the ground, which appears to be clearly established, that Hamilton's death was not the result of his military service; but Congress nevertheless passed an act granting her request. It appears from the army records that Hamilton enlisted September 2, 1862, deserted May 27, 1863, and his name was dropped from the subsequent rolls until February 29, 1864, when he was reported as a deserter in arrest. He was not borne upon the rolls for March and April, 1864; for May and June, 1864, he was reported absent in arrest; for July and August, present under arrest; and for September and October, present for duty. He was mustered out with his company May 24, 1865. Hamilton appears to be a good sample of "the rubbish of the army," as Gen. Bragg calls such men, and that there was a larger proportion of such rubbish than one likes to think, is clear enough from the number of such cases which Mr. Cleveland has blocked.

Mr. Cleveland never omits an opportunity to enforce the doctrine that the Government should not support the people. In vetoing the bill for a public building at Portsmouth, Ohio, he cites the claim of the promoter of the measure that there is not a Federal public building in the State of Ohio, east of a line drawn on the map from Cleveland through Columbus to Cincinnati, and that, "when wealth and population and the needs of the public service are considered, the distribution of public buildings in the State is an unfair one." The President condemns this theory of expenditure for public buildings as unten-

able, pointing out that if an application for the erection of such a building is to be determined by the distance between its proposed location and another public building, or upon the allegation that a certain division of a State is without a Government building, or that the distribution of these buildings in a particular State is unfair, we shall rapidly be led to an entire disregard of the considerations of necessity and public need, which it seems to him should alone justify the expenditure of public funds for such a purpose. "The care and protection which the Government owes to the people," he adds, "do not embrace the grant of public buildings to decorate thriving and prosperous cities and villages, nor should such buildings be erected upon any principle of fair distribution among localities. *The Government is not an almoner of gifts among the people, but an instrumentality by which the people's affairs should be conducted upon business principles, regulated by the public needs.*"

The condition of the proposed constitutional amendment for a change of the date of inauguration from early in March to the end of April is this: The Senate has passed the resolution for such an amendment. In the House a resolution was introduced providing that an additional clause shall be incorporated, by which the term of a new Congress shall begin on the second Tuesday in the January succeeding its election, beginning with the year 1889, the terms of members of the Fiftieth Congress expiring on December 31, 1888, without any decrease of their salary. One effect of this change would be that the short session would be a month longer than now—from the beginning of January till the end of April, instead of from the beginning of December to the beginning of March, while the long term would not be impaired, as under the present system nothing is ever done until after the Christmas holidays.

Another effect would be, that the theory of members of the House "coming fresh from the people" would be put in practice by their taking their seats in two months after their election, to legislate upon the live issues upon which they were presumably elected, instead of waiting, as they do now, until December of the year following their election—thirteen months afterwards. Another advantage would be, that there would be no election between the sessions, but the record of members for both sessions would be fully made up, and the work of the Congress to which they were elected completed, before they were called upon to render an account of their stewardship. Under the present system a defeated Congressman generally feels at the short session, after his successor's election, as though he were no longer the representative of his people, and such members are notoriously more open to corrupt and demagogical motives during this session than they would be if they were making a record for their constituents to challenge. Moreover, the proposed change would remove a most anomalous feature of our present system—that which devolves the choice of a President, in case there is no popular election, not upon the House of Rep-

resentatives just chosen, but upon one elected two years before, and often in the meantime repudiated by the people. These advantages are plain and great, and we perceive no counterbalancing defects. We are glad, therefore, to hear that there is a good prospect of an agreement between the Judiciary Committees of the Senate and House upon an amendment embodying both the change in the date of inauguration and that in the meeting of Congress, and we trust that the two branches will sustain this action of the committees.

An arbitration bill for the settlement of differences between railroad corporations and their employees has passed both houses of Congress. It provides that when both parties agree to arbitrate, the railroad company "is hereby authorized" to select one person, and the employee or employees another, and these two persons a third, who are to constitute a board of arbitration. They are to have the power to subpoena witnesses, and compel them to testify about everything but the "secrets" or "records" or "proceedings" of labor organizations. The arbitrators are to get \$10 a day, and the witnesses the ordinary fees paid in United States courts. The power of the arbitrators is, however, confined to the announcement of their award. No penalty is provided for disobeying it, nor is any machinery provided for enforcing it. In fact, the only thing the bill does for the promotion of arbitration is the bestowal on the board of the power to send for persons and papers under compulsory process, and the assumption by the United States Treasury of the expenses of the proceeding. This is certainly important, and, where both parties are really anxious to lay their case before the public, will doubtless do much to bring arbitration about.

In nine cases out of ten, however, the Knights of Labor will not resort to it under this bill, because the strikes managed by the Knights are all, or nearly all, sympathetic strikes, or strikes undertaken by laborers who have no grievances in order to help laborers who have. Other strikes are set on foot and managed by the parties immediately concerned. A sympathetic or Knightly strike, however, on the Powderly principle that "the injury of one is the concern of all," will never bear examination before any body of rational men outside a district assembly. The rule that when a man hears that his neighbor has a row with his employer, he is bound to have a row with his employer too, or that when one debtor hears that another debtor has been treated harshly by his creditors, he is bound, although his own credit is perfectly good, to suspend payments, is one, of course, which will always be "dismissed with a smile" by any one fit to sit in a board of arbitration. Therefore, these sympathetic strikes and boycotts, which are really the only ones which cause much trouble or create any serious industrial disturbance, will probably be rarely if ever settled under this bill.

The annual farce in which the Department of State and the two houses of Congress take part, has been lately presented to the country with some slight changes. Heretofore, when

the estimates for the foreign service were transmitted by the Secretary of the Treasury to the Speaker of the House, they were submitted to and considered by a sub-committee of the standing Committee on Appropriations, who, from the manner of their appointment, usually possessed no previous acquaintance with the subject, and who were intent only upon reducing the appropriation to the lowest limit. It was thought that, under the change in the rules by means of which the Committee on Foreign Relations was permitted to provide the appropriations for the diplomatic and consular service, there would be much less difficulty in securing decent allowances. But the main features of the farce have been nevertheless retained. In the first place, like the astute attorney who "lays" damages at twenty times the amount he hopes to obtain, the Department asked for money for this purpose and for that, trusting that at least something more than the usual sum might be granted. The Committee, more compliant than the sub-committee was wont to be, requested the House to look with favor upon nearly every item of the estimates. Of course, under the rules of that body which forbid increase of pay or provision for a new object in appropriation bills, every such item was voted down. Important consulates were left unprovided for, and changes, evidently in the interest of true economy, strenuously insisted upon by the Committee, were doggedly refused. In the Senate many of the stricken provisions were restored, and new ones were added "to bargain with."

What is to follow is the most amusing part of the performance. The House will reject without debate the Senate amendments, and a committee of conference will be suggested. The Senate will refuse to recede and will accept the conference. The two committees will meet in secret session, make some kind of a bargain, which will, perhaps, contain entirely new matter never before proposed in either house, and report, amid the confusion of the last days of Congress, as follows: "The Committee of Conference having met, after full and free conference, have agreed to recommend, and do recommend to their respective houses, that the Senate recede from its amendments numbered 1, 6, 25, and 64. That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendments of the Senate numbered 2, 5, 23, and 61," etc., etc. Without having any idea of the extent of the changes recommended in this report, it will be adopted without debate in both houses, after a hasty reading by the clerk. The bill as finally passed may not, and most likely will not, speak the mind of the Secretary of State, the Committee on Foreign Relations of the House, or the Committee on Appropriations of the Senate. For any defects, however glaring, or for any extravagance, however gross, it may contain, no one on earth will be responsible.

The Register of the Treasury has placed in the list of debtors to the Government, published a few months since, the name of Edmund Randolph, our second Secretary of State. It will surprise most people to learn that, in the early days of the Government, the Sec-

retary of State himself disbursed the funds provided for our diplomatic and consular establishments, and became personally responsible for their proper application. An arrangement was made about the beginning of this century by which fiscal agents, who have always been London bankers, disbursed these funds and became personally accountable to the Treasury for them. This custom still continues, though it has no special legislative sanction. In what precise manner Mr. Randolph incurred the large liability of over \$60,000 we do not know, but it is a matter of history that a suit was instituted against him in 1797 for the recovery of this amount, which, after much difficulty, resulted in a judgment against him in 1804. This judgment was for about \$53,000, with interest until paid. It seems that Mr. Nicholas, one of his sureties, entered into an agreement with the attorney for the Government for the discharge of this judgment by the assignment of certain bonds to the United States, secured by a lien on valuable real estate. This realty was in course of time sold and "bought in" by the Government for about \$4,000, with which amount Mr. Randolph was credited, though at a subsequent sale this property yielded the United States over \$10,000. It is understood that the various credits entered from time to time from the sale of bonds and land really amounted to as much or nearly as much as the original judgment, but to this had been added, when the last computation was made at the Treasury, which was more than fifty years ago, over \$60,000 interest. Mr. Randolph's indebtedness was not, therefore, at all diminished when this last settlement was stated, and at the present day the accumulated interest is at least four times the amount of the principal.

Taking into consideration all the circumstances of this case, the doubts that were originally entertained by the court concerning some of the charges made by the Treasury against Mr. Randolph, the profit obtained by the Government in the land transaction, and the absolute impossibility of recovering another cent on the judgment, it would seem that a Congressional investigation concerning the propriety of blotting out this indebtedness would be in order. Indeed, the cancellation of all these balances, which have been standing on the books of the Treasury for seventy-five or a hundred years, from which we can hope to derive nothing, and concerning the correctness of which there is so much uncertainty, would be a wise step, and in many instances an act of simple justice to the memory of men who have added to our prosperity and renown. Such relief was granted to the late Mr. Arthur, as Collector of Customs at this port, and to others, without, as far as we know, a dissenting voice.

The Central Labor Union had a good deal of work on its hands on Sunday, for, in addition to denouncing Mr. Powderly, it denounced the majority report of the Legislative Committee which investigated the recent coal strikes, and also Judge Brown of the United States Circuit Court for his decision against the Knights who ordered that strike. Both the Committee and the Judge are arraigned for complicity in a

plot to deceive the public, and put the blame for the strike on the industrious laborers of the community. The Judge gets the worst drubbing of all, for his court is set forth as a "tool in the hands of monopolists," and he himself as an agent in a "monopolistic system of anarchism." A resolution which was offered, declaring a boycott upon the entire "capitalistic press of the city," was laid over, probably because the oral Central Laborers were exhausted with the heavy day's work which had gone before. They have now in hand the following business: Repeal of the Penal Code; abolition of the courts; suppression of the entire press, with the exception of Labor's organ the *Leader*, and Henry George's *Standard*; complete reorganization of the Legislature in the interest of Labor; and the removal of Mr. Powderly as General Master Workman of the Noble and Holy Order of the Knights of Labor.

When Commissioner Flower of the Wisconsin Labor Bureau made his interesting inquiry into the condition of public sentiment regarding further foreign immigration, and discovered an unexpectedly strong feeling in favor of restrictive measures, many of his correspondents recommended that, as the first step, the State should abolish the Board of Immigration. This Board has maintained several agents in different parts of Europe, and has thus sought to attract as many Europeans as possible to the State, the theory upon which the system was established being that this was the surest way of promoting the prosperity of the commonwealth. A bill to abolish this Board was introduced in the Legislature early in the session and it has already become a law, having passed both branches without a dissenting vote. Such unanimity in the reversal of a long-established policy would be striking in any State, but it is peculiarly impressive in Wisconsin, which has more foreign-born than native voters; and the significance of the Legislature's action was still further emphasized by the fact that there are a number of foreigners among its members. Evidently a change in the American attitude towards immigration has begun.

We have already commented freely on the reformed English election procedure, explaining the strictness of its provisions, and pointing out the ease and certainty of their operation. Sir Henry James at Manchester recently made a speech of great interest on the working of the Corrupt Practices Act. The effect of the act has been that while in 1880, with 3,000,000 voters and only 419 constituencies, the total expense was about £3,000,000 sterling, in 1885, with 5,670,000 electors and 611 constituencies, the cost was only £780,000; and yet in 1885 the election was probably twice as expensive as it would be in future. Ninety-five petitions alleging corrupt practices were presented in 1880; in 1885 there were only two, and in 1886 only one. In fact, corruption at elections as heretofore known no longer exists. But Sir Henry pointed out a still remaining evil, the corrupting influence of the Primrose League and its rival associations—that is, the influence of women. He had been told that no form of act could reach this; "You could

not schedule a smile." Yet he hoped to do something to attack this pernicious form of corruption. Perhaps the advocates of woman suffrage may find something in this. They may be trusted to say at least that if the case is so bad, it could not be worse if women had votes. But it is a poor argument that things would not be worse than a condition confessedly bad, against which some remedy must be found, while the fact is that things would be worse: feminine urgency would be increased if women were active participants in elections, while feminine urgency plus votes would be a much stronger means of corruption than the highest degree of feminine urgency alone.

When the Tories came into power in England, not knowing well what to do about the Irish land question, they appointed another Commission of Inquiry, doubtless more with the view of getting time to look around them than with the expectation that the investigation would throw any new light on the situation. The Commission has made its report, which is really a triumph for the Parnellites. It concedes that the fixing of judicial rents for a period of fifteen years under the Land Act of 1881 was a mistake, and recommends five years as a fairer term, thus virtually admitting Parnell's contention that the rents fixed in 1882 are now exorbitant. Worse still, it recommends also the admission of the leaseholders to the benefits of the Act. This exclusion of the leaseholders, who form a very large body of the tenantry, deprived the Act, the Parnellites maintained, of a very large part of its value; but the fact was, that Mr. Gladstone felt that the application of the Act to tenants at will was as far as he dared to go (in the then condition of English opinion) into the matter of interfering with freedom of contract. He doubted if he could carry a bill which would set aside leases. Now, this very thing is recommended by a Tory Commission.

The calamity that has fallen upon the Riviera is even more destructive and lamentable than that which visited the Island of Ischia in the summer of 1883. At this time of the year the shore of the Mediterranean, from Marseilles to Genoa, is thronged with invalids and pleasure-seekers from all parts of the civilized world. The cities of Cannes, Nice, Mentone, San Remo, Savona, and a multitude of lesser communities, not to mention the great gambling hell of Monte Carlo, are now at their maximum of population and prosperity. The delightful climate and rare natural scenery of the region, improved by the continuous labors of man from a period earlier than the foundation of Rome, and rendered accessible by the finest carriage-road in Europe, have made the Riviera perhaps the most attractive spot on the earth's surface. The consternation into which the throngs of visitors and the native population are thrown by an earthquake that has killed 1,000 people and is liable to recur at any moment, must reach the limits of human endurance. Even if there are no more shocks, the fright that the tourist class have received will prove a heavy blow to the prosperity of the region.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 23, to TUESDAY, March 1, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE House of Representatives on February 24 refused to pass the Dependent Soldiers' Pension Bill over the President's veto, the vote being yeas 175, nays 125. A two-thirds vote was required. One hundred and thirty-seven Republicans and thirty-eight Democrats, including the Greenback-Democrat, Mr. Weaver of Iowa, voted for the bill. Of these thirty-eight Democrats twenty have not been reflected. Twenty-eight Democrats who voted for the bill on its first passage changed their votes to the negative in order to sustain the veto. The Republican members of the House all voted to override it.

Senator Sherman resigned the Presidency of the Senate pro tempore, and Senator Ingalls was elected to succeed him, and he entered upon his duties on Saturday.

The United States Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections has continued, at Washington, its examination of witnesses in its investigation of alleged election frauds in Washington County, Texas.

The Legislature of West Virginia failed to elect a United States Senator, and the Governor of the State has appointed D. B. Lucas, Democrat, to serve as Senator after March 4 until a successor to Senator Camden shall have been elected.

The deadlock of the New Jersey Legislature in its effort to elect a successor to United States Senator Sewell is not yet broken. Ex-Gov. Abbott is the leading Democratic candidate, and Senator Sewell the Republican candidate.

The Supreme Court of Indiana has decided that it has no jurisdiction over the question of the election of Lieutenant-Governor. The question whether there was really a vacancy in the office that could be filled by election in last November, was involved and argued, the Democrats holding that the vacancy was one that could only be filled by the election to be held in 1888, the regular quadrennial period for the election of Governor and Lieutenant-Governor. The Democratic presiding officer (Smith) continues to occupy the President's chair of the Senate. When the Republican Lieutenant-Governor (Robinson, elected in November) demanded the seat, he was put out of the Senate by the sergeant-at-arms amid much confusion. The House of Representatives refuses to recognize the Senate as now organized, and the course of legislation is blocked.

Gov. Lee of Virginia has called the Legislature to meet in extra session on March 16 to deal with the complicated financial condition of the State. The specific difficulty which has made an extra session necessary, is the continued effort of the representatives of the bondholders to compel the State to accept its coupons for taxes.

The Excise Committee of the New York Assembly has agreed on and reported the High-License Bill with amendments. The wine license was lowered from \$500 to \$100, making it the same as the beer license; the druggist's license was increased from \$10 to \$100, and the grocery-store license from \$25 to \$50. The highest license was kept at \$1,000. In a test vote on the question of recommitting the bill to the Committee, the Republican members with six exceptions cast votes favorable to the measure, and all the Democrats cast unfavorable votes. An effort to make the bill a special order for Thursday was unsuccessful.

Two judicial decisions have this week been handed down which declare the illegality of the boycott. One was in the United States Circuit Court in this city, in the action of the Old Dominion Steamship Company against the managers of the Ocean Association, an organi-

zation of freight-handlers. Judge Brown laid down the doctrine that "all associations designed to interfere with the perfect freedom of employers in the proper management and control of their lawful business, or to dictate in any particular the terms upon which their business shall be conducted by means of threats of injury or loss, by interference with their property or traffic, or with their lawful employment of other persons, or designed to abridge any of these rights, are illegal combinations or associations, and all acts done in furtherance of such intentions by such means and accompanied by damage are actionable." The other decision was handed down by the Supreme Court of Connecticut, establishing the same principle, in a test case of the New Haven *Journal and Courier* against four members of Typographical Union No. 47 of that city.

The trial of Cleary, the fourth of the members of the New York Board of Aldermen in 1884 who have been indicted for bribe-taking, is proceeding. Jaehne, McQuade, and O'Neil have been convicted and sentenced to hard labor in prison and to pay fines. Judge Barnard has denied the motion of O'Neil's counsel for further stay of the execution of his sentence pending appeal.

There have been heavy snowfalls both in the Northwest and in the Northeast. On the 24th the severest storm of the winter was reported from Nebraska, and on the following day trains had to be abandoned in Minnesota. In Vermont, New Hampshire, and northern New York the railroads were blocked; and the mountains of southwestern Virginia were deeply covered.

A successful test of a new steam-heating apparatus was made on Friday in passenger cars on the Milwaukee and St. Paul Railroad between St. Paul and Minneapolis. The device consists of the use of the exhaust steam from the dome of the engine, carried through pipes underneath the engine and cars, with a flexible coupling between each car. The thermometer registered 80° inside the cars when outside it stood at zero. The heat was distributed equitably, and seemed to be devoid of the dryness which is usual in coaches heated by stoves.

The season of German opera at the Metropolitan Opera-house in this city closed last week. Herr Seidl, the conductor, received from fifty or more patrons of the opera a "loving-cup," valued at \$1,000, which, in point of design and artistic finish, is said to excel anything ever made in this country.

Commodore William T. Truxton, United States Navy, retired, died at Norfolk, Va., on February 25. He was born in Pennsylvania on March 11, 1824, and had served forty-six years in the navy, nearly twenty-two of which were spent at sea. He commanded the sloop *Dale* in the South Atlantic Blockading Squadron in 1862, the steam gunboats *Chocoma* and *Tacony* of the North Atlantic Blockading Squadron in 1863-65; and he took part in the capture of Plymouth, N. C., in 1864, in the two attacks on Fort Fisher. Gen. Thomas W. Egan died in this city on February 24. During the war eight horses were shot under him, and he was twice severely wounded. He was made a Brigadier-General in the Union Army and afterwards brevetted Major-General. After his retirement from the army in 1866 he served for many years as a deputy collector in the Custom-house in this city. Mr. Robert Livingston Cutting, for many years one of the best-known men in Wall Street and a very prominent man in New York society, died at his home in this city on Friday.

FOREIGN.

By the German election, which was held on February 21, the numbers of seats won by the several parties are: National Liberals 92, including 2 Liberals who favor the Septennate; Free Conservatives 28, Old Conservatives 78, Centrists 90, German Liberals 11, Social Democrats 6, Guelphs 2, Poles 15, Protesters from Alsace 15, and 1 Dane. There will be fifty-

nine second ballots. Herr Bennigsen will not accept the Presidency of the Reichstag, but will keep the leadership. A sensation has been caused by the summoning of the new Reichstag for the 3d of March, before the undecided elections are settled by second ballots. The Liberals estimate that the second ballots will result in the return of 24 new German Liberals, 14 National Liberals, 6 Conservatives, 2 Free Conservatives, 7 Ultramontanes, and 8 Socialists. It is expected that the Septennate Bill will pass the three readings without debate; and apprehension has spread among the National Liberals that Bismarck will make more demands upon them in the way of tax measures than they will be able to yield. Herr Richter has declared that the elections were carried for the Government by deceptions and coercion of all sorts. The failure of the candidates favorable to the Government in Alsace-Lorraine has provoked somewhat jubilant comment in Paris. *La Liberté* said on the 26th: "It can now be plainly seen that a blunder was made when the provinces of Alsace-Lorraine—and more especially the latter—were annexed by Germany. It is apparent that it would have been better to have neutralized the provinces, as was suggested by sagacious minds during the negotiations between France and Germany after the war of 1870."

The German Government has issued an order for the dissolution of the union of Alsatian choral societies, it being suspected that the union has assisted the objects of the French League of Patriots. It is further reported that the laws dealing with societies will be rigorously enforced; that the measure forbidding French military men to stay in Alsace except on a special permit will be applied to civilians, and that societies whose rules forbid the admission of Germans to membership, or societies which, as a matter of common knowledge, exclude Germans, will be dissolved. Some law is considered necessary to deal with French emissaries—press correspondents and others—who, it is claimed, have been acting as electoral agents, inciting malcontents, freely visiting fortifications, and doing the work of spies. Advocates of an effective Germanization desire the temporary suspension of electoral rights in Alsace-Lorraine, German education in the primary schools, and a Government administration in place of the Municipal Councils.

There was much less talk of war in Europe for some time after the German election was held than before. It is reported from Berlin that the speech from the throne on the opening of the Reichstag, which will be read by Prince Bismarck, will contain a pacificatory passage. Negotiations have been satisfactorily concluded for a renewal of the alliance between Italy, Germany, and Austria, which will expire next May. The Austrian Government has decided to forego the usual spring mobilization of the artillery and cavalry, so as not to awaken alarm; and the *North German Gazette* asserts with emphasis that Germany has no interest in the East, and will not meddle in any quarrel which may arise there. The Austrian Reichsrath and Hungarian Diet, however, have by unanimous votes passed the extra credits asked by the Government for the equipment of the army and the Landwehr and the Landsturm; and two workmen employed on a railroad in Austria have been arrested as Russian spies. Gen. Boulanger said on the day after the German election: "When the ballot-boxes speak as they did yesterday, after fifteen years of occupation, one may well ask whether Alsace would not burst into revolt were Germany to declare war on France." French and German Government agents are visiting all the fairs in the north of England, and making large purchases of horses suitable for military purposes. Simply expressing his "personal opinion," Gen. Wolseley said on Saturday: "I should say I feel sure that a vast and appalling war is a certainty in the near future. But whether it will be this summer or next, there is only one man in Europe who knows—that is Bismarck."

The latest despatches report the international situation as less hopeful of peace. Although M. de Giers, in an interview with the Turkish Ambassador, expressed the opinion that the European equilibrium would soon be restored, and that there would be no war, the German authorities are greatly irritated by Russia's announced intention to increase her import dues, and are considering sharp counter measures. It is reported that incessant preparations are in progress in Poland. The forts are equipped with rapidly shooting guns, and the rolling-stock of the railroads is increased.

Owing to the war scare, German emigration to America has greatly increased, the emigrants coming chiefly from Hesse, Würtemberg, and Baden.

Among foreign personages who died during the week was Cardinal Jacobini, Pontifical Secretary of State (February 28). He was born at Albano in 1832. After holding less important ecclesiastical positions, he was made one of the "Consultors" of the Propaganda, and in 1874 he was chosen by Pius IX. as Nuncio at Vienna, which was at the time a position of no small difficulty. On September 19, 1879, he was created Cardinal, but he was kept for some time at the Austrian capital to carry on the negotiations with Germany and Russia, and to regulate the new ecclesiastical arrangements for Bosnia and Herzegovina. In 1880 he was recalled to Rome and appointed to the office of Papal Secretary of State, the duties of which so recently made him prominent, when he was called on to issue manifestoes to the bishops and clergy of Germany. The death was announced on the 25th of William Hensen, the German epigraphist, who was the associate in much of their work of Mommsen and Rossi, and was Secretary of the Institute of Archaeological Correspondence. Richard Caulfield, the distinguished Irish archaeologist, died on the 24th. He was editor of the *Journal of the Royal Historical and Archaeological Association of Ireland*, the author of a number of archaeological books, chiefly on Irish subjects, and a member of most of the European archaeological societies.

It is reported that, in return for the Pope's recent friendship, Germany has consented to act as mediator between the Italian Government and the Vatican. The Vatican's proposal is that part of Rome, including the "Leonine city," shall become the absolute property of the Pope.

At a meeting of the Taxation Reform Association held at Berlin on Monday, a resolution was passed favoring the abolition or reduction under international treaties of bounties on sugar.

An earthquake did great damage to property in southern Europe on the morning of Feb. 23, and caused the death of more than 1,000 persons, most of them in the Italian provinces. The movement was from west to east, and the severest shock was of fifteen seconds duration. The area of the disturbance was from Nice to Genoa. Bajardo and Diano-Marina were the only places destroyed. Cervo was damaged. The Riviera was crowded with tourists and persons of distinction. When the first shock occurred, the streets of Nice were thronged with persons in ball room costumes returning from the carnival ball. The King of Italy, the Pope, and the French Government have sent money to aid the injured. On the 26th a slight shock was felt at Charleston, S. C.

Later despatches from the region shaken by the earthquake report that San Remo is deserted. At Bussana only a church steeple remains standing. At Bajardo 230 victims were buried in a common trench on Sunday. A gloomy feeling prevails among business people, who fear that the Riviera may never again be a health resort. A chasm has opened in the ground near Nice, from which a stream of hot muddy water bubbles up. Portions of the coast have sunk and other portions have risen.

The building inspectors have condemned two-thirds of Mentone.

A rumor is credited in English political circles that an agreement has been more nearly reached between Gladstone, Hartington, Morley, Chamberlain, and Parnell than at any time since home rule came within the range of practical politics. The suggestion is even made of a possible reunion of Hartington and Gladstone in the event of the introduction of a coercion bill by the Conservatives.

Mrs. Gladstone presided on Friday over a meeting to form a Women's Liberal Federation. In her address she said that the women of Great Britain who were anxious to work for the Liberal cause and the progress of justice should be organized and united. Mr. Gladstone has made a permanent reduction of rent on the large farms at Hawarden.

The Right Hon. Henry Matthews, Secretary of State for Home Affairs, in a speech at Birmingham, intimated that Lord Randolph Churchill would rejoin the Government after the adoption of the budget.

The trial at Dublin of Messrs. Dillon, O'Brien, Redmond, and other Irishmen for their connection with the "plan of campaign" was concluded on February 24 by a disagreement of the jury. They will be tried again in April.

The report of the Royal Commission on the Irish land question has been made to the House of Commons. The chief recommendations are (1) that the term of judicial rents, fixed by the Land Act at fifteen years, be reduced to the statutory term of five years, all whose rents were fixed five years ago having the right to go into court at once for a revision of their rents; (2) that all leaseholders be permitted to go into court and have the judicial rent fixed by the Land Commissioners. The Commissioners report that intimidation in the shape of boycotting prevails extensively, but they abstain from making any recommendations on the subject. As to the congested districts, they recommend that the excessive population on the western seaboard should be reduced by migration or emigration.

The House of Commons has busied itself with a discussion of the rules of procedure. Mr. Parnell moved the exemption from closure of measures increasing the stringency of the criminal law in Ireland. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach declared emphatically that the Government declined to entertain such a proposal. Mr. Parnell said that unless such an amendment were adopted, the power would be given to any minister commanding a majority to carry the second reading of a coercion act without a word of protest from the Irish. The motion was rejected by a vote of 264 to 155. Subsequently Mr. Parnell moved the exemption from closure of all proceedings in committee of supply, which also was defeated. During the general debate on closure Mr. T. R. Buchanan (Liberal Unionist), Member for West Edinburgh, said that in the United States Congress moving the previous question was much used to close debate. This was done regardless of the Speaker's approval, the Americans acting in the belief that the Speaker's wishes should be left out of consideration in such cases. He strongly favored the adoption of the American form of closure. Mr. R. T. Reed (Liberal), member for Dumfries, advocated the American plan of devolving extensively upon committees the work of preparing legislation for final stages. This would greatly relieve the House, and do for it what no closure could possibly accomplish in removing the causes of breakdowns in Parliamentary work.

In the House of Lords on Monday evening the Duke of Marlborough called attention to the currency question, urging a special consideration of the effects which the depreciation of gold, with the present difference in the exchange value of the rupee, may have on trade and agriculture in Great Britain. Lord Salis-

bury said that the Currency Commission would duly consider the subject, and Lord Salisbury's remarks indicated that the report of the Currency Commission will be against bimetalism and in favor of the gold standard, leaving the relations of the values of the two metals to the operation of economic laws.

A rumor gained currency in British political circles on Monday that the Cabinet had decided to prosecute Archbishop Croke for advocating the non-payment of taxes in Ireland. In the House of Commons Mr. William Johnston, the Orange leader, asked Sir Michael Hicks-Beach what the Government intended to do regarding the Archbishop. Sir Michael declined to say more than that the question was engaging the attention of the Government. The Dublin executive has authorized all local magistrates to proclaim every Plan of Campaign meeting, and to demand the assistance of the military and police without awaiting sanction from headquarters. Mr. David Skeehy, member of Parliament for South Galway, will be removed from the office of Sheriff of Limerick for presiding at Plan of Campaign meetings.

In the House of Commons on March 1, Mr. George Howell, advanced Liberal, asserted that members of the corporation of London had diverted large sums of public money to defeat the bill before Parliament for the reform of the London Government, and asked for the appointment of a committee of inquiry. Mr. Gladstone declared that the matter was of the greatest importance, and that an inquiry must be granted, in order to prove whether or not the greatest corporation in the country had misused its trust and adopted illegal methods to pervert public opinion or control legislative action. Mr. W. H. Smith, First Lord of the Treasury, without admitting the truth of the accusation, assented to the appointment of a committee of inquiry.

There was a parade of Socialists in London on Sunday to St. Paul's, and the Cathedral was packed. When the text, "The rich and poor meet together; the Lord is the maker of them all," was read, there were shouts of "Bravo" and other exclamations of approval and some growls. But there was no other demonstration.

The 21st day of June has been decided upon as the date for the national celebration of the Queen's jubilee. The day will be declared a holiday, and her Majesty will attend a state service to be held in Westminster Abbey.

Diplomatic relations between Great Britain and Venezuela have been suspended, owing to a dispute respecting the frontier line between that country and British Guiana.

Mr. Stanley set out from Zanzibar on February 24, having fitted out an expedition, and has proceeded on his mission to rescue Emin Bey. The expedition consists of 9 European officers, 61 Sudanese, 13 Somalis, 620 natives of Zanzibar, 3 interpreters, and an Arab trader and 40 of his followers. Couriers have gone overland with letters to Uganda, and others have been sent to Stanley Falls to meet the native chiefs.

The Spanish Government is trying to induce Republicans abroad to return to Spain and accept amnesty, the object being to put a stop to revolutionary propaganda.

Experiments with a new explosive which have been made under the supervision of the Russian Government have been attended with great success. The explosive possesses fifteen times greater destructive power than gunpowder, and it does not produce any smoke.

Prince Alexander of Battenberg, the deposed King of Bulgaria, is ill at his father's house in Darmstadt, with varioloid.

A well of fine petroleum has been discovered in Houdeng-Goegnies in Belgium.

The recent elections in New South Wales resulted in the return to the Legislative Assembly of 83 free-traders and 41 protectionists,

THE MONEY POWER IN POLITICS.

THE figures which the City Chamberlain, Mr. William M. Ivins, gave before the Commonwealth Club on Monday, showing the amount of money which, in various ways, enters into our municipal elections, were startling chiefly because of their exactness. It has been notorious for years that enormous sums were spent in this way, and that a large part of them came from assessments upon candidates, but until now we have not had the exact figures. Mr. Ivins says he has devoted fifteen years to the subject, and as he has had the great advantage of prosecuting his inquiries from the inside, we presume there is no question of the accuracy of his results.

He gives first the amount which the city contributes directly to the cost of election machinery. This is to pay the officers who are on duty at the polls. There are 4,872 of these for the 812 election districts, and last November they were paid \$222,500. To this should be added Federal expenditures for marshals, etc., amounting to \$68,500, making \$291,000. This is the city's direct tax. Its indirect tax is even larger. In every one of the twenty-four Assembly districts there are district leaders for each of the three factions or parties—County Democracy, Tammany, and Republican. Each of these seventy-two leaders has his election-district captains and workers. Many of these seventy-two Assembly-district leaders are always quartered upon the city in one way or another, and get as many of their subordinates quartered there as they possibly can. Last year these leaders drew from the city treasury in salaries \$330,000, or an average of \$4,750 each. This year they are receiving \$242,000, divided between the three organizations as follows: 18 out of Tammany Hall's 24 leaders get \$119,000; 17 out of the County Democracy's 24 leaders get \$90,000; and 8 out of the Republican Machine's get \$33,000. These amounts are in many cases subdivided among the election-district captains and workers. This \$242,000 is the city's permanent investment in Machine leadership alone. To it Mr. Ivins adds \$750,000 drawn in various ways for hangers-on and heelers, making a total annual expenditure by the city for "politics" of \$992,000. Adding to this the total for the legal machinery of elections, \$291,000, we have as a grand total of the taxpayers' money involved in an ordinary city election, \$1,283,000. For a Presidential election, Mr. Ivins estimates an increase of at least \$100,000 in the expenditure for legal machinery.

Turning now to the assessment question, it appears that the income from candidates alone is almost as large as the city's expenditure for legal machinery. Mr. Ivins gives the following as the usual tariff on candidates:

Candidate.	Total assessment.
Mayor (for three Machines).....	\$25,000 to \$30,000
Supreme Judge (for two or more Machines).....	10,000 to 20,000
Superior Judge (for two or more Machines).....	10,000 to 15,000
Common Pleas (for two or more Machines).....	10,000 to 15,000
Register.....	15,000 to 40,000
Comptroller.....	10,000
Sheriff.....	10,000
County Clerk.....	10,000
District Attorney.....	5,000
Congress.....	5,000 to 10,000
State Senator.....	5,000 to 10,000
Assembly.....	500 to 1,000

As there are almost always two candidates for each office, and sometimes three, the total assessments are often double the figures represented above. For an ordinary election, Mr. Ivins estimates the minimum assessment revenue as follows:

Two Aldermanic candidates at \$15 an election district.....	\$24,360
Two Assembly candidates at \$10 an election district.....	16,240
Two Congressional or Senate candidates at \$25 an election district.....	40,600
Four candidates for Judgeships at \$10,000 each.....	40,000
Two candidates for Mayor at \$20,000 each.....	40,000
Two candidates for county officers at \$10,000 each.....	20,000
Two candidates for Comptroller at \$10,000 each.....	20,000
Two candidates for District Attorney at \$5,000 each.....	10,000
Total.....	\$211,200

Putting the average disbursements by all organizations at \$307,000, with \$100,000 paid by candidates, in addition to the payments by the organizations, and \$291,000, the expenses under the laws, we have a total of more than \$700,000. How this is divided up is shown by Mr. Ivins's figures of the number of men actually employed in the work at the polls. There are ten of them who are paid by law for each district, and about forty-six for each district who are paid by the political organizations. This makes for the whole city a total of 45,475 who are under pay on the day of election, and are consequently affected by the enormous amount of money involved. At the last election about 220,000 votes were cast, and of this number 45,000, or one-fifth, were receiving pay for their services.

Here we get a glimpse at the source of all our municipal misgovernment. It is well known, as Mr. Ivins points out, that all these district leaders, no matter what their political affiliations, are in cordial sympathy. They have all the same end in view, which is to get their living out of politics, and to make it as good a living as possible. The last thing in the world that they care for is economical and honest government. The more corrupt and extravagant it is, the more prosperous will be their condition. For this reason they are always ready to combine or "deal" for the election of the worst candidates and the defeat of the best, and they can almost always accomplish their purpose. A solid body of one-fifth of all the voters, actuated by a common purpose to make politics corrupt, is a menace to free government which cannot be disregarded. We are actually keeping under pay 20 per cent. of our voters, whose sole ambition is extravagant rule. Everybody knows the character of the vast majority of this 20 per cent. They are the worst element in our population, whose natural meeting-place is the liquor-saloon.

We have not space to-day to more than refer to the remedy for this, which is a complete reform in our election machinery. We may touch upon this hereafter, and also mention another item in the moving influence in elections, which Mr. Ivins did not elaborate—that is, the vast income at stake in the offices themselves.

THE LOVE OF TAXATION.

NOTHING could well seem more remarkable to a person acquainted with representative government only in theory, as it is laid down in

books, than the attitude of many of the legislators of the State of New York towards their constituency. These men are never more disposed to be active than when there is apparently very little for them to do. They regard the prosperity of any portion of the community as an ominous condition demanding legislative investigation. Signs of increasing ease in the lives of the people do not suggest to them reflections upon the advantages of a mild and tolerant government, but stimulate them to devise new forms of taxation. The spectacle of millions taken from the earnings of industrious citizens and spent in maintaining criminals in idleness occasions them no concern; but the idea that any man should accumulate personal property without the interference of the tax-gatherer, excites them to frenzy. No talk of double taxation or of the diffusion of taxes will appease them; what they want is, that every "capitalist" shall be made to disclose the details of his private affairs. They seem to have the feeling of the Oriental despot when he discovers that one of his subjects is wealthier than he had suspected, and that he has neglected an opportunity for extortion. It is beyond question that many of our Assemblymen look upon this city with emotions like those which caused old Blücher's celebrated ejaculation when he beheld the wealth of London.

It is a fact very well known in certain quarters, although it would be almost impossible to produce the evidence for it, that the easy administration of the law for the taxation of personality in this State has drawn hither an enormous amount of that class of property. It has led many persons of wealth to select this city as a place of residence (in spite of the fact that they often pay higher taxes in the form of rent than they would otherwise be subjected to), and it has caused a large quantity of money and securities to be actually deposited here. The violation by other States of the principle not to try to tax what can hide or run away, has increased both the population and the wealth of this State. The benefit, however, has in a measure extended to the whole country, for the existence of a great centre where evidences of debt are practically secure against governmental robbery, has lowered the general rate of interest. Every borrower in the land may be said to get somewhat better terms on account of the comparatively enlightened policy of the State of New York.

The policy of the neighboring State of Connecticut has been in several respects less judicious; but the shrewd inhabitants of that community are learning wisdom from experience. A commission appointed under a resolution of the General Assembly has been for some time considering their system of taxation, and has just rendered a most instructive report. Those who believe in the taxation of intangible property cannot possibly complain that the legislation of Connecticut has not been sufficiently stringent. It has provided at one time that all taxable property not listed should be confiscated; at others, that it should be taxed threefold or fourfold, or that like penalties of various degrees should be imposed; and the taxpayer has for many years been required to make his own return of all his possessions, and swear

to the truth of it. In spite of all these measures, the proportion of personal property to real estate subject to taxation in Connecticut does not very greatly exceed that in New York. The owners of such property who do not change their residence, simply will not return it. This is no mere conjecture, but a fact established by evidence that is conclusive.

In the first place, it appears that in 1855 the amount of property in the shape of bonds, notes, and money at interest returned for taxation in the State was about nineteen million dollars. In 1885 it had sunk to about thirteen million dollars. The inhabitants of eighty-one towns do not own a single bond. Not a bond is to be found in the rich city of Meriden. The twenty thousand inhabitants of the thriving city of Waterbury, by their united efforts manage to scrape together only \$750 in bonds. So far as cash is concerned, there was never a community since mankind emerged from a state of barter that got along with so little. On the first of October, 1885, the root of all evil had been entirely extirpated in forty-three towns, and the remainder got along with only \$1,100,000, about one-tenth of the amount estimated by statisticians to be used by such a population.

If this evidence is not sufficiently cogent, it can be supplemented. An examination of the probate records, made by the Commissioners, revealed the interesting fact that people in Connecticut as a rule have no conception of their own riches. Executors find that their testators have been ignorant of the existence of from 40 to 80 per cent. of their real wealth. In one district, the search made included every estate probated during the last ten years, and was conducted with the aid of the Judge of Probate. "The amount of taxable property inventoried was \$7,000,765; that appearing in the last tax-list of the deceased had been assessed at \$1,581,861." In another district, seventeen estates regarded as representative were selected. They were inventoried at \$209,000; but they had been thought by their owners, when living, to be worth for purposes of taxation less than \$47,000. It has been customary to accuse Connecticut Yankees of a certain smallness in their dealings, but when we consider how much poorer they are in their own judgment than in that of others, we see that it is easy to do them wrong.

When we consider the circumstances of beneficiaries under trusts created by will, widows, infant heirs, and such helpless folk, whose property is exposed to assessment through the probate records, we see that a man with due regard for posterity cannot properly die in Connecticut without carefully arranging his investments. If he should happen to be a resident of Hartford at the time of his death, holding say \$100,000 in West Shore 4 per cent. bonds—which he would doubtless keep in a deposit-vault in the city of New York, and would omit to return for taxation—his representatives would find that the net return from this fund would be reduced by taxation to less than 2 per cent.—indeed, taking the census returns of the rate of taxation in Hartford for 1880, to less than 1 per cent. They must either submit to the confiscation of more than 50 per cent. of their in-

come or change their residence. Without having any evidence upon this point, we venture to say that most of the notes and bonds that are taxed in Connecticut are in the hands of executors, trustees, and guardians who are unable to reinvest their funds. It is obvious that such persons must be often tempted to resort to investments of an illegal character.

It is not to be supposed that the inhabitants of Connecticut are of an exceptionally depraved character. Their nature is probably better rather than worse than ordinary human nature. They regard the present system of taxation as an exercise of brute force upon the part of the Government; that is, an outrage upon the rights of subjects. Doubtless many persons prefer to remove their residence from the State rather than to make sworn returns which, it must be confessed, require to be justified by somewhat elaborate casuistry; and citizens of this class no State can afford to lose. The great mass of the well-to-do, however, must remain where they are, and settle matters with their consciences as best they can. Probably they reason that as it is a fundamental principle in our criminal jurisprudence that a man shall not be compelled to testify against himself, so in taxation a compulsory oath is not binding. At all events they will not assist in what they consider to be a robbery of themselves, and in view of this fact the Connecticut Commissioners recommend that the State should abandon all attempts to levy taxes that produce little but loss of population and debauchery of conscience.

It is not to be expected that those rural statesmen who are endeavoring to establish inquisitorial methods of taxation in this State will pay much attention to the experience of Connecticut. With all their ingenuity, they will hardly be able to devise anything more stringent than some of the laws of that State. They will not succeed in adding much personal property to the list, but they may accomplish something in retarding the progress of New York. If they should succeed in introducing their policy, and if the people of Connecticut should at the same time adopt the report of their Commissioners, the advantages of a residence in the latter State would become obvious to a multitude of New Yorkers, whose expenditure would result in an addition to the value of Connecticut real estate much greater than the apparent loss in personal property. Such an exchange of policies would be an interesting occurrence, and one that the inhabitants of the respective States would regard with very different emotions.

THE NORMIROFKA.

It is not often that a real experiment can be made in political economy. As a general rule, when we attempt to try what the effect of a particular piece of legislation will be, we find it almost impossible to separate one cause from all other causes, and we consequently are apt to find the effect we are looking for mixed up with so many other effects that it has no value for us. The Russians have recently, however, performed an experiment in protection for native industry which is almost as neat and clean as a piece of work in a chemical laboratory. About forty

years ago they determined to make their own sugar out of beet-root, the example of the French proving as fascinating to them as it has more recently to the Germans. At first the Government helped the manufacturers with a bounty. After a while—that is, in 1850—it substituted for the bounty a high protective duty on foreign imports. They began with three rubles on the pood—the ruble being about seventy cents of our money, and the pood about thirty-six pounds of our weights.

There were slight variations made in the protection from time to time, but it on the whole proved prohibitory as regards imports. Under it the production of beets and sugar increased enormously for a great many years, and the profits were high. The large, well-managed factories made as much as 50 per cent.; the small and badly-managed, as much as 8 or 10 per cent. In 1881 the manufacturers produced just enough to meet the demands of the home market. From this the production increased with extraordinary rapidity, running up from 16,000,000 poods in 1881 to about 25,000,000 (estimated) in 1886-7. As the product of 1881 supplied the home markets, there was a surplus in 1882 and it steadily increased. Prices began to fall, and the small manufacturers began to fail. They could not export their surplus at a profit, because they could not compete in the foreign markets. More protection at home would do them no good, because the protection they had already was complete. Under these circumstances, there was nothing for it but to apply to the Government to pay them for exporting the surplus, and this the Government agreed to do.

An arrangement was made in July, 1882, by which they were to be paid a bounty of one ruble per pood for exporting 2,000,000 poods, and were to have also the excise duty of sixty-five copecks per pood remitted on this amount. This lasted until January 1, 1886, but it did not raise the price in the home markets, and so a prolongation of the bounty was demanded and accorded until July, 1886, on an unlimited exportation. At the same time the import duty was lowered to a ruble and a half per pood. Seven and a half million poods were accordingly poured into the English and Italian markets, the only large ones which had no sugar of their own. The influx knocked prices down in these markets to such a degree that it did not pay to export even with the aid of the bounty. Moreover, the quantity exported did not draw off all the surplus from the home markets. Three millions of poods of it still remained unsold and unsalable, every Russian having bought and consumed all the sugar he wanted or could afford.

Anybody who was not familiar with the history of protection or the workings of the protectionist mind would suppose that the Russian sugar men were now at the end of their resources; that they would sit down and submit to their ruin. They had had all the protection from foreign competition that they asked for. They had had all the bounty that would do them any good. They were cut off from the plan of making the Government buy their goods, which our silver men have found so

successful, because sugar is too bulky and too perishable to be stored in great quantities, for an indefinite period, like silver. What, then, were they to do?

They called a convention to consider the situation, and determined to ask for something which has been making a great noise in Russian politics during the last six months, namely, the "normirofka." This remedy is simply the restriction of production by law, to whatever extent would be necessary to keep the price up to the point at which it stood when the manufacturers made just enough sugar to supply the home market. This price they called the normal price, and they asked the Government, therefore, to keep prices normal, or, in plain Russian, to give them the "normirofka." They said the normirofka would be good for everybody—the large manufacturers, the small ones, the refiners, and trade and commerce and agriculture generally. In short, it would "grease the wheels of industry," and fill both capital and labor with rejoicing. The scheme was presented to the Ministerial Council, and accepted by it, with some modifications, by a vote of 12 to 5. The production of every factory was to be so cut down for two years that the total product of the first year should not exceed 17,000,000 poods, of the second 20,000,000. Anybody might make as much sugar as he pleased, but he was not to be allowed to sell anything over the regulation amount. He might eat it, or store it, or export it, but not offer it in the home market.

At this point all looked smiling. But in the Russian Council the Emperor has the casting vote, and the side he votes on always has a majority, whatever the figures may say. So his vote, added to the minority of five, made it thirteen, and the normirofka was refused. Of course it would not have done much good, even if it had been granted. At the end of the two years the Government would have found itself saddled with all the beet farms and sugar factories in the country. There is nothing for the Russian sugar interest now but to crush out remorselessly all the weak, incompetent people who have been seduced into it by Government premiums, improve and cheapen the processes of production, and limit the quantity to the wants of home consumers. The loss and suffering of this remedy will of course be very great, but the experience is invaluable. No number of books or tracts could have taught people so much about the difficulty of living on the Government.

THE GERMAN OPERA SEASON.

THE third season of German Opera in New York has become a matter of history. In musical circles this will always be known as the "Tristan" year; and unless Herr Niemann can be re-engaged and a first-class substitute be found for Herr Seidl, it may be long before New Yorkers will be able to enjoy an equally perfect series of performances of the masterworks of dramatic music. It may be doubted if in the whole history of music in this country anything has ever been done approaching, in the perfection of all the details, the eight performances of "Tristan and Isolde" given

at the Metropolitan this winter; and much of the credit for this is due to Manager Stanton for engaging six artists—Seidl, Niemann, Lehmann, Brandt, Fischer, and Robinson—who could not, perhaps, be excelled in their respective parts by other living artists.

The other novelties produced this year were not equally successful. Goldmark's "Merlin," although it was produced with a good cast and fine scenery, proved more of a failure than had been anticipated even by those who saw its lack of vitality at a first hearing. Yet it appears as if there were more in the score of "Merlin" than has been revealed to New Yorkers; for in Vienna, where "Merlin" was produced a few weeks sooner than in New York, it has since been given once a week regularly, and for a time seats were at a premium. At Hamburg, too, "Merlin" has just proved a success, the composer having made some cuts and alterations which might be adopted for our next season; for it will not do to drop Goldmark's opera altogether, in view of the limited scope of the modern repertory. That Brüll's "Golden Cross" was unsuccessful, is a fact which reflects great credit on the New York public. It is a most insane and trivial work, the extraordinary popularity of which in Germany a few years ago has always been a puzzle to us. Such operas can only be given, as they are abroad, at reduced prices. The ballet, "Vienna Waltzes," which accompanied this opera, though good enough in its way, was by no means placed on the stage with the luxurious pomp and scenic splendor that one sees at Paris or Vienna, and that alone will induce people to pay \$4 for seeing what in smaller theatres can be witnessed for \$1.50. In other words, ballet will not pay at the Metropolitan unless it is given on a scale of magnificence which no smaller theatre can rival.

If the dubious success of the fourth Metropolitan novelty—"Aïda"—did not justify the great outlay on its scenery, it must be remembered that the tenor Zobel did not please the public, and that, moreover, "Aïda" has never been the most popular of Verdi's operas in New York, even during the Italian *stagioni* of Mapleson's. As already intimated, the most successful production of the season has been Wagner's greatest work, "Tristan and Isolde," which had 8 performances. Then comes "Tannhäuser," with 6; "Prophète," "Meistersinger," "Merlin," "Rienzi," 5 each; "Walküre," "Lohengrin," "Faust," "Aïda," 4 each; "Fidelio," "Queen of Sheba," "Golden Cross," 3 each; "Masaniello," 2. Thus there were 61 performances, of which Wagner got 32. This is as it should be; for there are not a few who are convinced that if Wagner's eleven operas were placed in one scale and all other operas in the modern repertory in the other, the latter would rise up to the clouds.

This is not so extravagant a belief as it seems. The modern repertory is strangely limited. Mr. Stanton has produced fourteen operas in fifteen weeks; but even at an opera-house like that of Berlin, where a performance is given almost every evening throughout ten months, the list of operas is only about fifty; and this list includes some by Spohr, Kreutzer, and others that could hardly be given

outside of Germany. The great demand for Wagnerian conductors in Germany—as instanced by the enticing of Herr Seidl away from us to Berlin—shows the drift of popular taste abroad; and for New York, too, the most important desideratum at present is a man, like Hans Richter or Mottl, who can produce the three remaining parts of the Nibelung Tetralogy in the same superb style in which "Die Walküre" and "Tristan" have been given to us. "Siegfried" will be the most important novelty for next season; and possibly "Die Götterdämmerung" will be added. Verdi's "Otello" also can hardly fail to find place in our repertory and be welcomed by the public. Nor will its performance present insuperable difficulties to a German company, inasmuch as, according to the testimony of such eminent critics as Filippi of the Milan *Perseveranza*, and Dr. Hueffer of the London *Times*, Verdi has in his latest work abandoned the traditional forms and methods of Italian opera, and cast it in a Wagnerian mould. It is hard for the Italianissimi to be forsaken by their own prophet!

Another opera in contemplation for next season is Weber's "Euryanthe." The Viennese wits, who called this work when it first appeared *Ennuyante*, were poor prophets, for it has already been sung over a hundred times in that city, and is appearing more and more frequently in the repertory of German opera-houses. Schumann called this opera "a chain of brilliant jewels from beginning to end—everything most clever and masterly," and Wagner even indulged in the emphatic assertion in one of his last essays, that "every single number is worth more than all the *opera seria* of Italy, France, and Judaea." One of Gluck's operas sumptuously placed on the stage would also doubtless be appreciated—witness the success of "Orpheus and Eurydice" as given by the National Opera Company. Schumann's "Genoveva" is worth considering, as is one of Spontini's operas, say "Cortez," although Spontini's musical poverty makes the success of his works doubtful, because it would be necessary to spend large sums on the scenery and costumes. The "Freischütz," in a becoming attire and with Berlioz's recitatives, is worth considering. Hoffman's "Armin" is vastly superior to the "Golden Cross." The repertory of the Paris Opéra includes two good works which claim consideration—Saint-Saëns's "Henry VIII." and Reyer's "Sigurd," a French Nibelung opera. It might be well to recall the fact, too, that Rubinstein's "Macabees," with Fr. Brandt, used to be very popular in Berlin; nor is Rossini's "Tell" an antiquated work.

Excellent as the performances at the Metropolitan have been, they were by no means above criticism. The chorus was often poor, and apparently needed weeding and better material, as well as more careful drilling. Its performances in "Lohengrin" were repeatedly very bad. Indeed, "Lohengrin" sadly needs some improvements, as do "Die Walküre" and "Die Meistersinger." The only reason why "Tannhäuser" leads these superior works is because it is placed on the stage more in accordance with the composer's intentions. In the other works mentioned, Herr van Hell has shown himself so unable or unwilling to

reproduce Wagner's intentions that the acquisition of a new stage manager seems an imperative necessity. But the greatest problem is the securing of a successor for Herr Seidl, whose contributions to the success of German opera can only be estimated by those who know how difficult Wagner's later scores are, and how impossible it is to reproduce them effectively unless all the performers are united by enthusiasm and the personal magnetism resulting from it. It will be pleasant news to many to hear that hope has not yet been abandoned of securing Herr Seidl for next season after all.

FIVE YEARS OF THE LAND LAW.

DUBLIN, February 14, 1887.

Now that the Land Law of 1881 has been in full operation for over five years, it is possible to take a general view of its effect on the country. A reform was wrung from English statesmen by the combined action of the people; but the reform accorded was not what was asked for, and was thrust upon Ireland in spite of the remonstrances of the Nationalist party. Even in 1881, Mr. A. M. Sullivan, speaking at Walsall, said the Irish people had made up its mind that there must be an end for ever of the landlord system. Mr. Parnell's apprehensions of the inadequacy of the Land Bill, even before it was mutilated first by the Commons and then by the Lords, have been fully justified. He said, on the 5th of May, 1881, in the House of Commons: "The bill will fail to secure for the tenant farmers of Ireland such reductions in their rents as to afford adequate protection for the property in their holdings acknowledged by the act of 1870 to belong to the occupiers. The measure affords no suitable guarantee that its operation will result in the establishment of a sufficient number of occupying owners to check the existing monopoly of land." On May 19 he said it was useless to try and establish a partnership between idleness and industry, and that the Land League doctrine was that any attempt to reconcile the respective interests of landlord and tenant was impossible. It is interesting to recall Mr. Cobden's denunciation, in 1849, of that oft-repeated fallacy that the interests of landlords and tenants are in the long run identical—a fallacy which seems to have possessed Mr. Gladstone till very lately. Mr. Cobden said: "As members of one community, I do not say that landlords and tenants have not common interests in good and equal laws; but as landlords and tenants their interests are antagonistic, for the interest of one is to rent the land as cheap as he can, and the interest of the other to let it as dear as he can."

Mr. Parnell foresaw very clearly the weakness of the rent provisions of the Land Law. He said: "The tenant is not afforded the simple means of knowing what is his except by tedious and expensive litigation, every step in which may be contested by the rich, powerful, and educated landlord class opposed to him. It will be impossible to find an unprejudiced tribunal; the educated classes, from whom the sub-commissioners will be drawn, will be either landlords themselves or their relations, or in some way under their influence, and in favor of the maintenance of the landlord system in its full integrity." Finally, he warned the Government that there was no better way of keeping alive agitation than by supplying half remedies for admitted grievances. The agitation is still as living and forcible as in 1881, and again there is the danger of half remedies. A legislature constituted as the Imperial Parliament is, and occupied with the affairs of an empire, is first ignorant of Irish questions, and, next, too much dominated by the powerful English landlord class to legislate impartially. It sees

nothing in the agitation but a struggle between the "haves" and "have-nots," instead of, if I may quote the *Nation* in its own columns, that "the Irish people are striving after the American system, which has filled that country with happy rural homes, the nurseries of liberty which make the republic great and strong."

The Land Law of 1881 has done more morally than economically and materially for the Irish tenant farmers. There are about 600,000 agricultural holdings in Ireland, but as one farmer often has several farms—an acre or two, if let separately, being counted as a holding—there are, including laborers who are also tenants, less than 500,000 occupiers of agricultural land. There are not, however, 400,000 holdings to which the Land Law applies; for leaseholds, farms expressly let for grazing, town parks, and laborers' holdings are excluded. The expenditure by the occupiers of leaseholds, and of land adjoining towns and villages, and often of pasture lands, on permanent improvements, has been quite as large as that of other occupiers, and no real principle was satisfied by their exclusion from the scope of the law, which has therefore been capable of application to only two-thirds of the agricultural holdings in Ireland.

Nearly one-half of the holdings within the act have come under its operation, the number of rents settled by the different methods available being now nearly 200,000 (the former rental of these holdings having been £3,400,000). The reduction made by the operation of the law, of £600,000 or thereabouts, has been somewhat dearly bought. The cost of the Land Commission courts has in five years been over £300,000, an expense borne by English as well as Irish taxpayers; the expenses of the suitors in the land courts have, been, at the lowest estimate, considerably over half a million pounds. The loss of time, the distraction from business, the natural tendency to bring the land into bad condition before entering the courts, represent large amounts, of which no exact estimate can be made.

The decisions of the courts, confirmed on appeal, and establishing principles which the Sub-Commission courts are bound to follow, have made the Land Law more useless as a remedy than even its opponents expected. The clause permitting leases, enforced by undue influence, to be annulled, has been inoperative, not because such a provision was unnecessary, but because of the technical interpretation put on its words. The Healy clause, intended to exempt from rent all improvements not made by the landlords, was in fact repealed by the judgment of the Court of Appeal in the case of Adams and Dunseath; a decision which was all the more unsatisfactory because it was against the opinion of the most eminent and most qualified judge in the case, Lord Chancellor Law, and also expressly against the clearly stated intention of Mr. Gladstone. The reduction made in such rents as have been revised is now admitted to have been inadequate; it did not even correspond to the fall in prices, and fell far short of restoring to the tenant his own improvements, on which he had been rented. The change that has come over public opinion during the last six months has been reflected in the recent decisions of the Sub-Commission courts, the percentage of whose reductions of rent has of late enormously increased. The result is a sudden and decided increase in the cases entered for hearing in the rent courts, showing that want of confidence was mainly the cause of tenants not entering before. In 1881 and 1882 the courts were overwhelmed with applications; but experience of the results, and the unexpected expenses attendant on rent suits, made tenants latterly more wary of rushing into court than they were at first. In the way of rent reduction,

the Land Law has done nothing which might not otherwise have come about: the Plan of Campaign has effected quite as large a reduction in the rental of Ireland in a few months, and without cost.

From the landlords' standpoint the Land Law has been wholly unsatisfactory. The reduction in their rentals has not been compensated by a cessation of agitation; the tenure under the Land Law is too uncertain to induce tenants to improve more than they did before its existence, and to secure thereby the rent to the landlords; its effect is rather to encourage farmers to bring their land to its worst condition before entering the land court; and undoubtedly the Land Law has made landlords' estates quite unsalable. The Irish landlord has ceased to be an owner of land; he is now the owner of an uncertain and variable rent charge, accompanied by a liability to innumerable lawsuits. The saving clauses introduced into the law, in his supposed interest, have helped to make his property unmarketable. No one would buy an estate where the tenants were leaseholders. Their exclusion from the Land Law was admittedly unreasonable and unlikely to endure. For the same reason, the law having failed to fully protect and exempt from rent tenants' improvements, an element of uncertainty which was quite independent of economic conditions existed there also. The only person, then, to buy the landlord's estate is the tenant of each individual holding; and there competition does not come into play in fixing the price, but only considerations of what it is worth while to pay in commutation of the rent and the tenant's chances of still further reducing it. The conditions of the law, and the circumstances of most estates, are such that they cannot be sold in separate parcels; all must be sold together, or no part can be sold. The only influence compelling the tenants to buy at high prices is where the landlord has been able to offer the choice of eviction or purchase.

Landlords thus have good reason to complain of the effect of the Land Law; and their position is deserving of sympathy and pity. Many of them are not personally responsible for the condition of their estates, or for past injustice toward their tenantry; they have inherited difficulties, liabilities, debts, and misfortunes from which they cannot escape. Many a landlord would gladly sell his whole estate at a price which the tenants would willingly give, but he is trammelled at every point by the meshes of the law. Settlements, encumbrances, charges, and all the complications of real-property law prevent him from acting on his own responsibility or with vigor. He can take no step without incurring heavy legal costs; and delay may, and often does, mean ruin. It is surprising, after their experience of the disregard of their interests in English legislation, and looking at the general tone of the English democracy towards them, the Irish landlords do not attempt—as they might time after time have done—to make terms with the Irish Nationalist party, and to trust their own countrymen rather than to the chances of party politics in England.

The landlords who reside, and intend to continue residents, in Ireland are, however, as a body, enfeebled by the fact that so many landowners are absentees, without any interest in the country, and only anxious to realize what they can from their estates, and to sever the only tie they had with it, viz., that of rent receivers.

A LAND VALUER.

THE PRINCESSE DE LIGNE.

PARIS, February 10, 1887.

I DO not much like the title of a new book by M. Lucien Perey (the same who has usually col-

laborated with M. Gaston Maugras): 'Histoire d'une grande dame au xviii siècle.' It would have been enough to say 'La Princesse Hélène de Ligne.' There is some vulgarity in this "grande dame." It reminded me of a play which was once very famous, the "Tour de Nesle." The hero, a student named Buridan, describes some ladies whom he has seen, and says: "They have velvet dresses, oh! they are great ladies (*ce sont de grandes dames*); they have small pages, they are great ladies"; and, finally: "elles ont de mauvaises mœurs, ce sont de grandes dames." This was in the time of the Romantics; the "grande dame" of the "Tour de Nesle" was a Duchess of Burgundy, who threw her lovers from the windows of the Tower into the Seine.

M. Lucien Perey has chosen a heroine in a more civilized period; he has found the memoirs of the Princess Hélène de Ligne, begun when she was nine years old, and continued till she was married. These memoirs, the notes of a girl, were quite unknown; they are those of a clever child, at the time when she was getting her education at the convent of the Abbaye-aux-Bois. Who was this girl? One morning, in the year 1771, a carriage brought to the abbey three persons, the famous Mme. Geoffrin, the mother of the philosophers, as she was called, the Polish Prince Masalski, Bishop of Wilna, and his niece, Hélène, aged eight years. The Prince was in exile; it is needless here to say why he had fallen into disgrace. He had made Mme. Geoffrin's acquaintance during her journey in Poland, he knew she had a great influence over the King of Poland, and by her means he hoped to obtain an end to his exile. Mme. Geoffrin was not sorry to take a bishop under her protection, and she wrote immediately to King Stanislas August Poniatowski (her correspondence with the King has been published by M. Charles de Moüy).

What was she to do with his young niece? There were at the time only two fashionable convents, Penthemont (the chapel of which has become in our day a Protestant chapel) and the Abbaye-aux-Bois. Saint-Cyr was out of fashion: the pupils of this great establishment founded by Mme. de Maintenon were all poor daughters of noblemen. At the Abbaye-aux-Bois, all the ladies who directed the administration, and who conducted the education of the girls, belonged to the highest nobility. Music, dancing, painting, were taught with much care. The Abbey had a theatre with costumes and fine decorations. The young Princess was dressed in the uniform of the convent, entering the *blue* class, composed of children from seven to ten years old. The programme of her new life, written in her own handwriting, is this:

"On Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays: rise at seven in summer, in winter at half-past seven. To be at eight in the class, waiting for Mme. de Rochechouart, who enters at eight precisely. To learn, when she is gone, the 'Catechism of Montpellier' [this was a Jansenist catechism, as the ladies of the Abbey were openly attached to the Jansenist ideas]. At nine, breakfast; at half-past nine, mass. At ten, read till eleven. From eleven to half-past eleven, music lesson. From half-past eleven to twelve, drawing. From twelve to one, a lesson in geography and in history. At one, dinner and recreation till three. At three, lesson in writing and arithmetic till four. At four, dancing lesson till five; *gouter* and recreation till six. From six to seven, harp or piano. At seven, supper. At half-past nine, to bed."

The memoirs give us also a picture of the ladies who conducted the *blue* class: "Mme. de Mont-luc, called La Mère Quatre-Temps, mild, careful, too particular, and meddlesome. Mme. de Montboucher, called Sainte-Macaire, good, silly, very plain, a believer in ghosts. Mme. de Fresnes, called Sainte-Bathild, ugly, good, telling many stories." Conventual life produces everywhere the same effects: things infinitesimal as-

sume immense proportions, the instincts of human nature seem to take a new force, as you see plants develop more rapidly in a hot-house. La-fontaine said long ago, speaking of children: "Cet âge est sans pitié." The girls of the Abbey, though they belonged to the best families, were not an exception to this rule; they were often cruel in their plays, they delighted in tormenting their ladies and in tormenting each other.

The young Princess fell ill, and it was judged that she was too delicate for the ordinary course of education. It was agreed with her uncle that she should have an apartment of her own, with a *bonne* and a *mie*. A *mie* (an abbreviation of *amie*) is a little more than a maid, a sort of companion. A *bonne* is the word used for the maid of a small child. The Princess received four louis (eighty francs) every month for her small expenses. She had a banker and a large credit. The amusements of the recreation were very peculiar. The most popular was hunting. The red class (the older girls) chose the huntsmen, the *valets de chiens*, and elected among themselves a stag; the blue class furnished the dogs. The two classes entered into this amusement with much spirit, the girls imitating in their convent all they had heard of in their families. The amusements of the *pensionnaires* were often of the nature of practical jokes.

"Mademoiselle de Choiseul's room," says the author of the memoirs, "opened on mine. She got up at night and came to my bed; we put on our *robes de chambre*; we opened softly my door, and we ran through the house all night, amusing ourselves by blowing out the lamps, knocking at the doors, chatting with the novices, and eating with them sweetmeats, pies, and bonbons, which we bought secretly. One day we took a bottle of ink and threw it in the holy water, which is at the door of the choir; as the ladies said matins at two o'clock after midnight, and knew them by heart, there was no other light than a single lamp. They all took holy water, and did not see how they looked. But daylight came, at the end of the matins; so that, seeing each other so strangely spotted, they began to laugh so that the office was interrupted."

Another day we see her, with her friend, tying their handkerchiefs to the cords of the bells, so as to hinder the bells from ringing. Altogether the young Pole was extremely lively and unruly. She was intelligent also, and her style shows it. She tells very characteristic stories of her comrades: "At the time when Mademoiselle de Montmorency was only nine years old, Madame de Richelieu was abbess, and once became so angry with Mademoiselle de Montmorency that she told her, 'When I see you in such a state, I could kill you.' Mademoiselle de Montmorency replied, 'It would not be the first time that the Richelieus had been the executioners of the Montmorencys.'" This child, if she was not familiar with the history of France, knew well the history of her own family.

Sometimes a girl left the convent in order to be married. It was, of course, a great event. Mlle. de Bourbonne once came back from a visit to her family. She was very sad, and announced her marriage with the Count d'Avaux:

"The next day Mademoiselle de Bourbonne received a great bouquet, and in the afternoon M. d'Avaux came. We all found him, as he really was, abominable. When Mademoiselle de Bourbonne left the *parloir*, everybody said to her, 'Ah, my dear, how ugly your husband is! If I were you, I would not marry him. Oh, the unfortunate creature!' And she said, 'Ah, I will marry him, for papa wishes it; but I will never love him—that is a sure thing.' It was decided that she should see him no more till the day when she was to take her first Communion, so as not to be distracted. She took her first Communion at the end of eight days, and five days afterwards she was married in the chapel of the Hôtel d'Harvè. She came back the same day to the convent; she received jewels, diamonds, and a magnificent *corbeille*. What most amused her was to be called by us all Madame d'Avaux. She told us that after the marriage ceremony there was a

breakfast at her mother-in-law's; that her husband wanted to give her a kiss; that she cried and never would let him. Her mother-in-law told her she was a child. This great hatred went on increasing, and one day, when her husband asked for her at the *parloir*, she made believe that she had sprained her foot, so as not to go."

Many marriages were made in this fashion, and it is not much to be wondered at if they ended in some irregular *liaison*, as in the case of Mme. d'Avaux, who attached herself for life a few years afterwards to the Vicomte de Ségur, a younger brother of the Ambassador.

The custom of the Abbaye-aux-Bois was to confide to the girls the service of the *obédiences*. The *obédience* is the particular employment which in religious houses is attributed to each nun. There were eight of them: the *abbatiale*, the *sacristie*, the *parloir* (or drawing-room, where visits were received), the *apothicairerie* (the drug room), the linen room, the library, the dining-room, the kitchen, the *communauté*. Young Princess Hélène, after having played *Esther* in a gown covered with diamonds and pearls, put on a little black gown and prepared a *tisane* or cataplasms. The *abbatiale* was the service of the abbess; Mlle. de Choiseul did her errands, took care of her work, of her books. Other girls, bearing the greatest names in France, could be seen counting the linen and putting it in great piles, others took care of the priestly garments and mended them; some even had to look to the sweeping of the *dortoirs*. Altogether this was not a bad feature in the education of the Abbaye-aux-Bois; it acted somewhat as a corrective, and prepared the girls for the duties of a housekeeper.

The most intimate friend of our young Polish Princess was Mlle. de Choiseul, the niece of the famous minister. One fine day Mlle. de Choiseul was informed that she was going to marry her cousin, Choiseul-la-Baume; she was fourteen and he was seventeen. She fortunately knew him a little and liked him. It was a great affair in the convent. "Mlle. de Choiseul, whom I shall now call madame, came back from Chanteloup the seat of the Duc de Choiseul. She told me of all the feasts which had been given to her, but said that her mother-in-law had scolded her every day." The Princess was very much attached also to one of the ladies, Mme. de Rochechouart. Her memoirs end with the account of the death of this charming person. The remainder of the volume has been written with the help of the young Princess's correspondence and some notes, and of documents taken from many books. Her beauty was very great, and her reputation had extended beyond the walls of the convent. Two pretenders offered themselves, the Duc d'Elbeuf, Prince of Vaudemont (of the house of Lorraine), and the Comte de Lorraine. These were not accepted, and a third pretender came forward, the Prince Charles de Ligne. The house of Ligne is one of the most illustrious in the Low-Countries. Prince Charles, the father, was a great favorite at Versailles and Vienna, as well as at Brussels; he had great personal qualities, he was a good soldier, and a man of *esprit*. He was charmed with the Princess Hélène, more so than she was herself with his son. When she saw her future husband for the first time she told her friends: "He is blond, tall, he looks like his mother, who is very handsome, he has a *grand air*, but he is too serious and has something too German in him." The marriage took place in the chapel of the Abbey. The Bishop of Wilna gave his niece a trousseau of 300,000 francs; the presents were magnificent. Hélène gave a jewel to each of her companions. The contract was signed before the King and Queen at Versailles July 25, 1779. The day of the marriage (the 20th) Hélène was much admired for her "attitude pleine de sensibilité" ("sensibility" was the fashion). She went to her apartment, changed her

gown, and went alone to the chapel, where she said a last prayer on the tomb of Mme. de Rochechouart, who had been a real mother to her. At the door of the Abbey a carriage with six post-horses was waiting for her; the postillions wore the pink and silver livery of the Lignes; she bade good-bye to all the companions of her childhood, and the carriage started rapidly for Belœil, the famous summer residence of the Prince of Ligne in Belgium.

Correspondence.

BISHOP COXE'S ENGLISH PHILOLOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I shall now, I hope, be able to have done with the paper by Bishop Coxe to which I have already devoted two letters. His English, which is by no means exemplary, I leave uncriticised.

The Bishop expatiates on the misuse of the verb *to demean*, but gratuitously; his avowed subject being "Americanisms in England." And here again, as usual, he lays himself open to correction. Respecting *to demean*, in the sense of 'to debase,' besides saying that Webster quotes Thackeray for it, he gives, as from Webster, a passage in evidence that he "too readily licenses the vulgarism," and so on. In all this he confounds Webster's editors with Webster himself, who adduces no quotation under the word, neither approves nor disapproves it, and unaccountably describes it as "not used." Nor is he aware of the fact that Webster, who, he remarks, "mistakes the force of the word," as used on a single occasion by Shakspeare, simply therein follows suit to Dr. Johnson. The validity of Johnson's view is questioned by his first editor, Archdeacon Todd, but is accepted by his second editor, Dr. Latham. The point is one for the conclusive decision of which it would be necessary for the poet to expound himself from beyond the Styx. Todd, in demurring to Johnson's position, as "dubious," and Bishop Coxe, in being absolutely positive—as I once was, myself—that it is untenable, may, or may not, be in the right. Todd shows, at all events, that Shakspeare's contemporary, Dr. Geo. Abbot, who died Archbishop of Canterbury, undoubtedly connected *to demean* with *mean*, in 1601; and Dean Swift, as cited by Richardson, likewise did so. On looking over my notes I find that the objectionable use of *to demean* has been patronized by the Rev. Myles Davies, Dr. Doddridge, Samuel Richardson, Robert Lloyd, Goldsmith, Henry Brooke, Horace Walpole, Hazlitt, the first Lord Lytton, and the *Saturday Review*. The verb *to bemean*, 'to debase,' unknown to the dictionaries, is spoken of in my 'Recent Exemplifications,' etc., pp. 105, 106. Ventured, by Mr. Justice Rokeby, in 1688, it has since then often been printed.

Replying to the comment on the use of *to demean* in the sense of 'to debase,' that "it is not unusual," Bishop Coxe delivers himself in this wise: "What if it be 'not unusual,' so long as it is improper? It is not unusual for Americans, and Englishmen, also, to say *talented*, *lengthy*, *being built*, etc. But is nobody to stand up for the purity of our noble language because so many tendencies are at work for its rapid defilement and deterioration?" In dealing with the expressions thus frowned upon, and one other, I shall bring my special strictures to a close. As I have fully discussed all of them but *riled* in my 'Modern English,' which has been before the public for thirteen years and upwards, prolixity will, however, be unnecessary.

Talent having come to signify much the same as *talents*, there was no more irregularity in coining *talented* than there was in coining *lei-*

sured or *moneyed*, which no one finds fault with. Not only so, but it might normally have been based on *talents*, if we had never had *talent* except so qualified as to indicate that a particular form of ability was intended by it; in which case it would have had companions in *booted* and *spurred*, *featured*, *slipped*, *spectacled*, etc., etc. So far as has been discovered, it was first used, though not exactly as we use it, by Archbishop Abbot—"an excellent writer," as Archdeacon Todd justly terms him—who died in 1633. Exceedingly few Englishmen, nice as they may be in their choice of diction, now scruple to employ the word.

With his habitual inexactness, Bishop Coxe arraigns the expression *being built*, without specifying the sort of context in which he takes it to be inadmissible. "*Being built* of stone, the house will last," or "the house's *being built* at once is insisted on," he would not condemn, though one might infer, from his neglecting to distinguish, that he would. Idioms like "the house is *being built*," as I pointed out ten years ago, were used in 1769 by Mrs. James Harris, and in 1779 by her learned husband, the author of 'Hermes.' When we had only, for example, "he *notices*" and "he is *noticing*," our language already excelled in one specialty of discrimination all other languages of Christendom that I know of; and we have improved on our old-fashioned phraseology by introducing the strictly analogical counterpart of "he is *noticing*," namely, "he is *being noticed*." The grammatical parallelism here contended for having been made out, beyond all dispute, elsewhere, I shall not here repeat myself. Suffice it to add that the modern rhematic development under consideration enjoys the practical sanction of, it is believed, nearly every living English author who is at all noteworthy.

For the characterization of the verb *to rile* or *to roil*, as a "local Americanism and provincial English," Bishop Coxe professes to copy literally from Webster, though neither Webster nor his editors so express themselves. It is worth mentioning, by the by, that Webster's participle *roiling*, with his appended estimate, that "This word is as legitimate as any in the language," is boldly omitted by those editors. *To rile* having originated here in England, why should any one fancy that the frequent use of it in our day by Englishmen is owing to a return of it from the United States? Anywhere in East Anglia this word, of yore no localism, may be heard every day; and what should have prevented its coming to be generally intelligible, like *fad* and *to shunt*, other provincial vocables which have, within not many years, become nationalized? The Bishop, quoting Forby from recollection, credits him with saying that it "is now seldom heard in England"; but Forby says nothing of the kind. He will have it, too, that the word is confined, in America, to "very illiterate people"; and he declares that he never heard it "among persons supposed to be educated." Either his memory must be strangely treacherous, or he can have mixed but little with his countrymen. The word, though not suitable for the pulpit, or for grave discourse, is a respectable enough colloquialism of the jocose order, wherever our language is spoken. As to the adjective *rile*, alike in Suffolk and in New England it bears the three senses of 'irascible,' 'vexed,' and 'turbid.' In some parts of Lincolnshire it signifies 'fuddled.'

I now come to *lengthy*, Bishop Coxe's bare mention of which stands alone in justifying the title of his essay. From *health*, *stealth*, *wealth*, and *worth*, which are, or were, both abstract and concrete, we have made adjectives. Why, then, should not we have made one from *length*, as well? The old *longsome*—which Richardson anachronistically speaks of as "our word"—was al-

ways depreciatory. So, almost always, is *lengthy*, which, as being much needed, has, and no wonder, firmly established itself, and is now avoided by no Englishman whose judgment has the slightest claim to deference. Yet Dr. Latham does not so much as recognize its existence. If all words of American parentage were evolutions equally legitimate, our verbal mintages would deserve no stigma. Webster's editors would trace it to England, quoting for it a passage which they attribute to Gibbon, the historian, and date in 1763. The passage is found in an anonymous translation, first published in 1837, from Gibbon's French. Though I stated this fact in 1873, those editors still persist in their error.

If the tironic and misleading proclusion which I must now take leave of had not emanated from a person who is presumed to weigh his utterances, and whose utterances will be received by many as authoritative, it would have been sheer waste of time and toil to expose its worthlessness. On essays of the same uncritical stamp good paper and ink are squandered, every month, by superficial speculators whose attitude, in approaching English philology, ought to be disciplinary rather than magisterial. Abundance of reprehensible English deforms our current speech; but such speculators constantly direct their animadversions against illaudable locutions and laudable, indifferently. Where they all chiefly err is in repudiating the adjudications of usage, appeal from which, as common sense and the experience of the past should teach them, is of no use whatever. An expression offends them, and they imagine that they determine it to be censurable by asking, as Bishop Coxe asks, "What if it be 'not unusual,' so long as it is improper?" By a question to this effect there is implied the adoption of some standard or other of correctness, which, however, they evade formulating. Yet there is no difficulty in formulating it for them. Their own personal disapproval is, in most instances, the sum and substance of their arguments adverse to what they brand as to be rejected. They bring themselves to prefer what is old, because it is old, and to turn from what is new, because it is new. And hence their causeless wail, with the Bishop, in lamenting the danger of "the rapid defilement and deterioration" of our language. Of the assumption that it runs any risk of worsening, not a shadow of proof is producible. With respect to expanding our vocabulary, the spirit of the seventeenth century has revived in the nineteenth century. Verbal and signification novelties, good and bad, are daily propounded; and, just as has befallen their forerunners, it will fare with them, rigidly after their deserts. In conclusion, it would be idle to deny that, in proportion to slovenly practitioners of literature, there are more writers of careful English at present than ever were contemporary before. If English, in their handling, and as modified by the requirements of the age, is not as it once was, how could this result be helped, and what is the harm? Theologians, here and there, and the theologically minded, would have our language to be a curious branch of divine science, in which whatever emerged prior to a certain date accords with orthodoxy, whereas everything more recent in it is tainted with heterodoxy. The world has always ruled otherwise, and it will do so to the end.—Your obedient servant, F. HALL.

MARLESFORD, ENG., February 4, 1887.

THE DERIVATION OF "SAUNTER."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Gilman's letter on the derivation of "saunter" moves me to inquire if those learned in such matters have weighed the possibility of its introduction from Spain. The dual significa-

tion of "santéro," i. e., "one who collects alms for a holy man or hermit," and "a hypocrite," together with the lazy life led by like bangers-on of the Church, may serve to render such a supposition plausible—at least on the surface.

THEODORE BAKER.

LEIPZIG, GERMANY, February 9, 1887.

OLD CLOTHES FOR THE FREE LIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to suggest a way of reducing the revenue, which appears to be growing too fast for our wants: Remove the duty on old clothes.

I have just had to pay, in Boston, \$22 duty on a small trunk of old bonnets, dresses, and under-clothing sent home from here. The articles were bought in America, and were worn there and here, and there was nothing new in the trunk. A consular certificate, costing \$2, testified that my statement regarding the articles could be believed. But somebody had to be *protected*, and my protests were unheeded. P.

PAU, February 11, 1887.

A MUTUAL EXPLANATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am sure you will allow me to publish in your columns a partial defence of some of the errors you kindly pointed out in my translation of 'Eminent Authors of the Nineteenth Century,' by Dr. Georg Brandes, recently published by T. Y. Crowell & Co., Boston. Many of the slips may be accounted for by the distance between the publisher and the proof-reader. The proofs were all sent to me to be read. I kept them longer than would otherwise have been necessary because I wanted the author, Dr. Brandes, to look them over, but he was absent on his summer vacation. Thus it happened that the publishers, in order not to lose the fall trade, issued the first edition *before* the proof-sheets were returned to them. The second edition was published about the middle of December, if I am correctly informed, and in this I think you will find the most of the slips and errors of which you complain, removed. At all events, the proofs of the second edition (issued as stated before your valuable review appeared) were read both by the author, Dr. Brandes, and by me. I have not seen a copy of this second edition, but I flatter myself that you will find it tolerably free from errors.

Hoping you will kindly publish this explanation, and thanking you for the impartiality and thoroughness which invariably characterize your book reviews, I am, dear sir, yours faithfully,

R. B. ANDERSON.

P.S.—You speak of my "long residence" in America as if I were a foreigner. Allow me to add that I was born in Wisconsin, and that I claim to be a full-fledged American, eligible to any office for which you may see fit to recommend me.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, COPENHAGEN,
February 14, 1887.

[We had occasion to regret this error of ours as soon as it was irrevocable.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

MACMILLAN & Co. expect to receive immediately from England Part 3 of that great Anglo-Saxon undertaking, the 'New English Dictionary,' edited by Dr. James A. H. Murray for the Philological Society, and printed at the Clarendon Press. This part concludes the letter B, and

marks a sensible advance in the labor of publication, which, we are now informed, will proceed at a faster rate than hitherto. Part 3, we are told, "deals, in all, with 8,765 words, and the articles which it contains will be found to be replete with interest and instruction to every reader. It is a characteristic of the letter B (shared only by some letters of less compass toward the end of the alphabet), that a very small proportion of the words beginning with it are derived from or through Latin, the great majority being Teutonic, either of the native Old English stock, or of the accessions which this received from the kindred speech of the Norsemen. Hence the present part deals with many of the oldest and most interesting words of the language, which are also among its most important living elements in every-day use. . . . In the Etymology, much more original work has had to be done than in the two preceding parts. The B-words are full of puzzles, which have baffled the efforts of all etymologists: every one of these has received a fresh and independent investigation, in which the editor has had the coöperation of the most eminent philologists of Europe, and the result has been the discovery of new facts or the elimination of old errors in the history of hundreds of words." We need hardly remind our readers that this work ought to be not only in "every gentleman's library," but in every intelligent household.

Macmillan & Co. will be the English publishers of Prof. Mendenhall's 'A Century of Electricity,' and, in order to secure simultaneous publication, its issue here by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will be postponed.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready, bound in book form, Mr. H. Rider Haggard's 'Jess'; also, 'Haifa, or Life in Modern Palestine,' by Laurence Oliphant; 'From the Forecastle to the Cabin,' by Capt. Samuel Samuels of the yacht *Dauntless*; and 'Microscopy for Beginners,' by Dr. Alfred C. Stokes of Trenton, New Jersey.

A. C. Armstrong & Son will publish during March 'Modern Methods of Illustrating Books,' by H. J. Wood; 'The Dedication of Books to Patron and Friend,' by Henry B. Wheatley; 'A History of the Old English Letter Foundries'; 'The Life and Poems of Mme. La Guyon,' edited by the Rev. A. Saunderson Dyer; 'Representative English Prose and Prose Writers,' by T. W. Hunt; and 'The City of Youth,' by J. Thain Davidson.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, have in press 'Masters of the Situation; or, Some Secrets of Success and Power,' by W. J. Tilley; 'Poetry and Philosophy of Goethe,' by Marion V. Dudley; and 'Theophilus Trent; or, Old Times in the Oak Openings,' by Dr. B. F. Taylor.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready Lotze's 'Outlines of Logic,' translated by Prof. Geo. T. Ladd of Yale.

Cassell & Co. project a limited *édition de luxe* of Messrs. Matthews and Hutton's 'Actors and Actresses of Great Britain,' in five volumes, large paper. They have also in press 'Yachts and Yachting,' by Capt. R. F. Coffin, illustrated by Fred. S. Cozzens.

The New York Shakspeare Society will shortly complete with Part 2 its 'Digesta Shakspeareana,' or topical index to the entire body of Shakspeare literature to January 1, 1887. Hereafter the Society will regularly issue a Year-book which will continue the index for the twelvemonth.

The twentieth annual issue of 'Poor's Manual of the Railroads of the United States' will be ready about July 1.

The 'Life of Abraham Lincoln,' by Francis F. Browne (New York and St. Louis: N. D. Thompson Publishing Co., 1886), which has just been issued, is remarkable for the very liberal use made of the scissors in its compilation. It is meant to

be a popular book, and is bulky; but the greater part of its seven hundred and more pages consists of extracts from previous works on Lincoln, supplemented by the most meagre and perfunctory of biographical narratives, a number of quotations from Lincoln's speeches, and illustrations of an inferior and sometimes painfully sensational nature. It is, in fact, a selection of the most striking anecdotes and scenes of Lincoln's life, arranged chronologically, and taken, wherever they might be found, from books old and new. It contributes practically nothing to the subject. The examination of the sources, however, has been thorough, and the information given is very full. It is necessarily a strictly personal life, and the hard and grim lines of Lincoln's career are very strongly brought out.

Matthew Arnold's "Estimate" of Gen. Grant has been reprinted from *Murray's Magazine* by Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston.

Mr. William J. Rolfe has edited, in his usual careful and thorough manner, Scott's 'Lay of the Last Minstrel' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.). Scott's two introductions are quoted entire. In that of 1830, his obligations to Coleridge's "Christabel" for a hint as to metres are acknowledged. There was a chance here for Mr. Rolfe to annotate by citing Coleridge's dictum (in his 'Table-Talk'): "Not twenty lines of Scott's poetry will ever reach posterity: it has relation to nothing."

Mr. E. H. Hall, instructor in physics in Harvard College, is the author of a pamphlet of 37 pages on the 'Elementary Ideas, Definitions, and Laws in Dynamics' (Cambridge: Charles W. Sever). So much of mathematics and physics as is taught in any high school or academy which prepares boys for college is all that is necessary to the perusal of the little book. It will, however, be most interesting to those who have something of a metaphysical cast of mind, and are fond of reflecting upon or discussing those elementary ideas which lie at the foundation of our knowledge of the outward world. The ideas of motion, velocity, weight, inertia, force, energy, etc., are discussed and illustrated. One of the principal uses of books of this kind is "to set the reader thinking." He may not have the difficulties which present themselves to his mind satisfactorily disposed of, but it is a long step in advance to see clearly what they really are.

From Macmillan & Co. we have a treatise on the Differential Calculus, by Joseph Edwards, formerly Fellow of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge. Though the author styles it an elementary treatise, it covers a great deal of ground, and is particularly full in its geometrical illustrations. The book does not seem to us well adapted to self-instruction, and will probably prove most interesting and profitable to those who have already some acquaintance with the science of which it treats. The copious selections of examples, many of which are new, and still more taken from college and university examination papers, and from papers in the India and home civil-service examinations and from the examinations at Woolwich, form, perhaps, the most attractive feature of the work.

The complete works of I. S. Aksakoff, the noted Slavophile publicist, conservative, and editor of *Russia*, comprising articles contributed to various publications between 1860 and 1886, are now appearing in quick succession. Volume ii, on Slavophilism and Occidentalism, and Volume iii, on the Polish Question, have recently been published. The series is extremely interesting and important for the proper understanding of Russian public opinion during the transition epoch which it covers. The tendency of these volumes is in Mr. Aksakoff's usual vein, but they contain much with which people of other views can agree.

A thoughtful address by Mellen Chamberlain,

Librarian of the Boston Public Library, delivered at Brattleboro', Vt., on January 25, has been printed in pamphlet form. The occasion was the dedication of a free-library building, and the speaker contrasted the old life and social and political (aristocratic) forces of New England towns with their present comparatively disorganized and headless condition. "Henceforth persons will be of less account, and institutions of more account," and among the latter the public library will have a leading place. Speaking of the unlitrary habit of the New England founders and of their successors for several generations, Judge Chamberlain repeated some curious statistics, of his gathering, concerning the advent of Shakspeare and Milton to America—not till 1700 in Massachusetts, and Shakspeare not reprinted in New England till 1802-1804. "The earliest quotation from Shakspeare found in the series of Massachusetts Election Sermons is by Zabdiel Adams in 1782, and that is a misquotation."

Nos. 23, 24 of the Bibliographical Contributions of the Library of Harvard University consist of a list of the publications of the University and its officers, and of the chief publications on the University, by Wm. H. Tillinghast; and an Index to Reference Lists, by Wm. C. Lane.

In regard to the question of lending books from the Bodleian Library, a writer in the *Speculator* refers to the fact that the large Continental libraries constantly do this, but send the books or manuscripts to some library, to be used there only. This he believes to be the present rule of the Bodleian, in which case the chief risk run is that of the journey. In defence of the practice, he asserts that, but for such facilities to scholars, it would have been impossible to carry on the work of the Wyclif Society.

"The Unpublished Records of the City of London" is the title of a paper read on February 4 before the Royal Institution by Mr. Edwin Freshfield. He first called attention to the "Roll of the Hustings Court," containing every will relating to property requiring registry in London from 1250 to comparatively modern times, with information so clear and minute that a topographical map of the city at a certain date could be made "with the names of the owners of the houses and almost of the dwellers." In the records of the 130 parishes of London (mostly dating from the beginning of the reign of Elizabeth, though a few are older), he asserted, there were the materials for an unrivalled social history. They contained not only a history of the Poor Laws, of taxation, of sanitary and other regulations—a history of the governed, in fact—but it was also possible to determine from them where the people lived, the kind of houses they lived in, and their occupations, and very often, from casual references, to get an insight into their characters. He dwelt particularly on the light which is shed by them on the part played by the citizens in the civil war, the reasons why they declared for Parliament and afterwards for the Church and Restoration, and especially upon the extraordinarily personal rule of Cromwell. These things are made as plain, he said, "as if you could converse with the people who had written the minutes."

The February number of the Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with a paper on New Guinea by the Rev. J. Chalmers, for ten years a missionary to that island. The most interesting part is the description of a village of cannibals on the southeast coast. "Large and well built houses, with great figures in front painted on native cloth," stood on piles in a swamp covered at every high tide. In it was a temple consisting of an enclosure with a roof supported at one end by posts eighty feet high, and approached by an aisle nearly 200 feet in length. This was hung on either side "with

what looked like splendid silk curtains . . . made from the young frond of the sago palm, split up when quite new. The flooring of the aisle, two feet broad, appeared to be a dark, stained, highly polished wood and carved with figures of men, crocodiles, and cassowaries; this was made from the skin of the sago palm, and received its high polish from the blood of victims dragged along to the end where the most sacred place was, and the constant tread of numerous feet." The skulls of the victims, inland natives, were hung about this enclosure. With much difficulty he obtained permission to enter the sanctuary, and found in it "six wicker-made gods with the mouth of a frog, enormously large and open, the body of a dugong measuring about nine feet in length and seven feet high." Dr. Edmund Neumann, for some years at the head of the Geological Survey of Japan, gives, in addition to a description of the physical features of that country, many entertaining sketches of the scenery and people of the mountain regions. In the north he says that the snow accumulates in enormous masses. "There are villages which frequently experience a fall of over twenty feet of snow." Naturally, during winter, nearly all out-door life ceases. In one village which he visited "the inhabitants, after their breakfast, go to the baths, which are fed by hot springs, and remain in them for the whole of the day, enjoying the heat."

The *Revue Scientifique* for February 5 contains an article by M. G. Marcel on the German colonies in Africa. He begins by quoting the saying of Bismarck that he "would not shed the blood of a single Pomeranian soldier for a colony," but does not attempt to show what has caused the great change in the Prince's policy. After dwelling upon the systematic way the Germans have proceeded in their colonizing schemes, by committees, societies, and publications, as well as by scientifically-conducted explorations, he briefly reviews the history of each colony, giving some trade statistics. The most important article, constituting two-thirds of the total exports to the west coast, is spirits, principally rum, so adulterated as to have a frightful effect upon the health of the negroes. On the east coast he shows that Germany has acquired a strip of territory stretching over twenty-one degrees of latitude and reaching inland to the great lakes. This gives it the control of all the great trade-routes from this coast to the richest part of Central Africa. The article closes with congratulations to France on the possession of Madagascar, and advocates a more energetic policy in regard to strengthening her hold upon the island.

The new boundary of Brazil and Venezuela is mapped in No. 127 of the *Journal* of the Berlin Geographical Society. From Cacuhy, on the Rio Negro, the line follows a low line of hills westward to the headwaters of the Rio Memachi, and eastward the bolder and bolder serras to beyond the right branch of the Rio Branco. A plan of the ruins of Arsinoë (Krokodilopolis), by the explorer Schweinfurth, also accompanies this number.

The January number of the *Annales de l'École Libre des Sciences Politiques* (the first of the second year) contains five articles. The first, by Léon Aucoc, is entitled "De la limitation du rive de la mer et de l'embouchure des fleuves et rivières." The second article, by André Lebon, "La Constitution allemande et l'hégémonie prussienne," gives a lucid and instructive sketch of the Constitution of the German Empire, especially the device by which the independent representation of each State is reconciled with the complete hegemony of Prussia. The third article, "Les vallées françaises de Piémont," by H. Gaidoz, is also of historical interest, treating of those French valleys and mountain regions (of which that of Aosta is the chief) which are under

the Italian flag, and are survivals of the time when the little kingdom of Sardinia (then including Nice and Savoy) was almost equally French and Italian. The author, in his conclusion, takes occasion to protest against the excessive assertion of the doctrine of nationality—these fragments of *Francia irredenta* may balance what remains of *Italia irredenta*. Another historical article is "Les Congrégations Religieuses," by Émile Morlot. This gives a sketch of the history of these bodies from the time of the Revolution, ending with a recommendation that some limit should be placed upon their power of acquiring property in land, and that foreign associations of this character should be subjected to special conditions of authorization. The last article, by Paul Fuzier, treats of "La réorganisation de l'impôt sur les terres en Italie" (the law of March 1, 1886).

The January number of the *English Historical Review* is a very interesting one. The first article, upon the Empress Theodora, by C. E. Mallet, shows, after a monograph by M. Debidour, that the commonly received notion of this princess, derived exclusively from the scandals of the 'Secret History' of Procopius, is improbable in itself and wholly inconsistent with the other works of Procopius, and with the other historians of the court of Justinian. An article by Miss A. M. F. Robinson, "Queen Elizabeth and the Valois Princes," contains a detailed account of the matrimonial negotiations of Elizabeth with Charles IX., Henry of Anjou, and Francis of Alençon successively. Of these princes, Anjou is described as the same contemptible and loathsome character with which we are familiar; for Charles IX. and for Alençon, "open and frank, valiant and manly," we are made to feel rather pity than disgust. The Queen's selfishness and vacillation are well exhibited, and plausible grounds are given for the assertion that "Queen Elizabeth, in reality, was responsible for the St. Bartholomew massacre." Miss Robinson is one of the best scholars in the history of the sixteenth century, and her article is a real contribution to our knowledge. "Early Explorations of America, Real and Imaginary," by A. R. Ropes, takes Winsor and Bancroft (H. H.) for text. The subjects especially treated are the character of Columbus, who, "though still the hero, is not so much the hero"; the birthplace of Sebastian Cabot (decided to be probably Venice); Vespucci, and Juan de Fuca. Another article, by H. G. Keene, gives an account of the Channel Islands. Among the "Notes and Documents," we have a vindication of the "Squire Papers," by W. Squire, and a defence, by W. S. Lilly, of his book on the Renaissance from a Catholic point of view, against Mr. Symonds's criticisms. Among the reviews we notice especially a caustic criticism of the third volume of Canon Dixon's 'History of the Church of England,' by the Rev. G. G. Perry. He pronounces the work "not sufficiently serious nor candid."

Among his many other duties, Prof. Henry Morley also edits *The Old Neuwieder*, the semi-annual magazine of the Society of Old Neuwieders and of pupils of other Moravian schools, 28 Finsbury Square, London, E. C. Of this pleasing little magazine No. 3 has just come to hand. It contains as introduction to the new year these cheering words of Prof. Morley: "A happy welcome to the New Year and to its work from the Society of Old Neuwieders. May we gather into fellowship this year many more comrades of all ages from the dear old schools. May God's blessing rest on this year's work of the Moravian Brethren, from whose example we learnt something of the meaning of the herald angels' song. May the spirit of their Brotherhood quicken ours, and make our common life as a Society helpful to us as members of it in our single lives;

may it help, also, to maintain peace in us, and good will to all mankind. A happy welcome to the New Year, and its work in Christ towards the fuller brotherhood of man." Mr. Morley's description of the trip to "New Unkraut" (Neuwied on the Rhine), when but a lad of ten years, is full of humor. So is the story of his hunting the right Mynheer Van der Tabak among the seventeen Van der Tabaks at Rotterdam. It need not be added that this is a labor of love, and that gratitude for early impressions made upon Prof. Morley, while a boy at the Moravian school on the Rhine, prompts him to assume the editorship.

An admirable steel portrait of the late Edward L. Youmans is prefixed to the March number of the *Popular Science Monthly*. His sister furnishes a sketch of his useful life.

Nos. 1 and 2 of volume ix. of the *American Journal of Mathematics* are before us. When the publication of the *Journal* was commenced the editors announced: "The publication of original investigations is the primary object of the journal"; and further, that foreign mathematicians of eminence would contribute to its pages. These declarations are carried out in a most remarkable manner in the present numbers. Of the 192 pages which they contain, 141 are due to the labors of eminent English mathematicians. On the "Theory of Reciprocants," Prof. Sylvester gives us fourteen new lectures (making so far twenty-four in all). They fill eighty-six pages and are "to be continued." A paper on "Wave Motion in Hydrodynamics," by A. G. Grunhill of Woolwich, England, occupies fifty-one pages, and Capt. MacMahon, R. A., has four pages of "Observations on the Generating Functions of the Theory of Invariants." American mathematicians fill up the remaining fifty-one pages. The profundity and originality of the contents of these two numbers are certainly unsurpassed by those of any mathematical journal in the world; but the ticket of entrance to the panorama of ideas which they exhibit can only be purchased by long years of labor.

L'Art for February 1 (Macmillan) is rich in examples of the pictorial treasures of Chantilly; in a noble etching, by Flameng, of Bonnat's portrait of his fellow-artist, M. Pavis de Chevannes; and in one of Ringel's medallions—the not very strong profile of the explorer Brazza. In the *Courrier de l'Art* for January 21, we read of a recent decipherment of the writing upon a letter held in the hand of Rembrandt's "Dr. Martin van Looten"—a portrait in Dorchester House. "Mon bien cher ami. Ayant trouvé guérison . . . Dieu vous garde." This is signed by Rembrandt's monogram, and the inference is that, at the inscribed date (January 11, 1632), the artist painted this portrait in gratitude for a cure wrought upon him by his sitter, within two years after his settling in Amsterdam.

A recent Assyriological thesis, part of a work on 'The Assyro-Babylonian Teaching concerning the Life after Death,' to be published by Hinrichs, is entitled "Die Höllenfahrt der Istar"—the descent of Istar into Hades—by Alfred Jeremias. This text has been translated several times, but Jeremias's translation is an improvement on those of Talbot, Schrader, and Oppert. The most interesting incident in the poem is the result of the absence of Istar (Aphrodite) from the earth—the cessation of all reproduction—a trace of this portion of the tale being preserved in the Talmud. The form of the poem, as the author well observes, is a *parallelismus membrorum*, the same as we find in Hebrew poetry. Another dissertation, by Carl F. Lehmann, is in Latin, and treats of a more original set of inscriptions, those which relate to Shamash-shum-ukin, the viceroy of Babylon and half-brother of Sardanapalus.

Lehmann transliterates the Akkadian (or Proto-Babylonian, as he prefers to call it) text and the Semitic translation, besides a text of Sardanapalus bearing on the subject.

—The March *Atlantic* illustrates how easily this magazine leads the rest in literary distinction. Mr. Lowell has a poem of faultless handling; Dr. Holmes gives us the first instalment of his "Hundred Days" campaign in the London season; and the other contributions, taken together, have the trait of style which shows a modicum, at least, of literary talent in opposition to facility with the pen. Where else would one find without surprise a study of a play of Euripides simply for its own sake? Mr. Lawton has described the "Hippolytos" in just this way; and, by the aid of liberal translations and not too much explanation of ancient usages and beliefs, he has made it quite intelligible and interesting, we should say, to the unclassical reader. He does not bring out the character of *Phædra* or of *Theseus*, or the temper of the chorus, very clearly—for which, perhaps, more space would be needed; but *Hippolytos*, a very noble and beautiful figure, is perfectly rendered, and the way in which the single study is made to illustrate the genius and human nature of Euripides, is worthy of high praise. The author seems desirous only of adding his mite to the tribute which Euripides is receiving more and more from modern scholars, and of helping to relieve him from the invidious comparisons from which he suffers; to bring back a favorite of Milton is well worth attempting. Mr. Scudder's analysis of Longfellow's art is noticeable because of the clearness with which he brings out two things: one, Longfellow's ambition to leave a great work, of which 'Christus' and 'Michael Angelo' are the evidence; and, secondly, the large proportion of his work, aside from express translations, which is in reality closely dependent on his books for their matter. This is the first critical article on Longfellow which is helpful to a comprehensive judgment of him. Mr. Perkins's paper on Gautier is interesting, but somewhat lax according to our notions. "Paul Patoff" brings up in an English country house instead of Persia, and is some years older.

—*Harper's* begins with one of those solid articles, so bristling with facts and figures, which are really marvels of condensation and directness, and are most often found in this magazine. This time the subject reported upon is the Police Department of this city. The account of the system and its efficiency is very flattering to the corps, and the extent and variety of the service done throw a broad light on the modern government of a city. Next in popular interest, perhaps, is Theodore Child's description of French duelling, of the public opinion that sustains it, the general exercise in fencing, and the more famous duels of late years. Among the latter is Gambetta's, which is immortalized in American humor, but Mr. Child professes to give the true account for the first time, on the authority of Clémenceau, who acted as Gambetta's second. The rencontre, he says, was serious, and the distance not too great, but his defence necessarily provokes a smile. Mr. Child sees no indication of any change in the national pastime, and declares that its bloodlessness is one of its principal charms to the nation which is equally high-spirited and fond of this world. By far the most attractive article of this number is Mr. Charles Gayarré's recollections of life on the Boré plantation, on which he was brought up. It is a picture of early Louisiana life most admirably drawn, and with historical as well as personal interest. The old man, his grandfather, is a character not often to be met with on the printed page. The sketch is only too brief. It is much better to read than

any current fiction, being full of a reality that refines and delights. The South is also made the field of a short piece by Mr. Warner, of the nature of a report upon his late trip with the *Harper* party. He confines himself to pointing out that there is no unfriendliness to the North in the suppression of the negro vote, but he looks on it, though with regret, as an exigency of the social situation; and he celebrates the educational and industrial progress in the cities, the general spirit of work everywhere, and seems to sum up his own view by asking whether, when so much more than was to be looked for has been and is still being accomplished, it is worth while to overturn the control.

—A popular discussion of the general nature of earthquakes and their geographical distribution, with special reference to the chances of their occurrence in this country, is contributed by Prof. Shaler to the current *Scribner's*. The subject is dealt with very comprehensively, and the various causes of the jars which are continually taking place in the earth's crust are stated so that one can easily understand the history of an earthquake in imagination; but the writer steers clear of particular applications. He suggests that the brief historic record of the seismic phenomena of this continent may be supplemented negatively by an examination of the distribution of the poised rocks deposited on the retreat of the glaciers, and also of the columnar rocks formed by erosion, or other unstable fragile masses, on the ground that the regions where these are found may be presumed to have been free from shocks of any violence; and he argues, also, from the undisturbed surfaces of the glacial debris, found just above high-water mark along the Atlantic coast, from New Jersey northward, that no tidal waves have been rolled upon this shore. He points out once more the danger in our cities from the lofty buildings not securely joined to resist vibrations, and extracts some suggestions to architects from Prof. Milne's work. A second interesting scientific article is from the pen of Prof. William James upon the general topic of Instinct, but strictly limited to the phenomena of the subject. He disputes the theory of "derangements of the mental constitution" advanced by Romanes, to account for some variations from the normal, and thinks that such anomalies are to be referred to the transitoriness of certain instincts and to the inhibition of instincts by habits. The examples he cites are apt and his reasoning plain. He does away with the old antithesis of reason and instinct, and holds that the office of reason, in conduct, is not to inhibit any impulses, but to "make an inference which will set loose the impulse the other way." Man is thus distinguished from the brutes by the possession of more impulses, i. e., by a greater range of possible action; but they possess no principle of action which he lacks. This view has a very attractive simplicity and consistency. The Bayeux Tapestry is the subject of full illustration.

—The article entitled "The Late Crisis and the Cowling Session," in the last number of the *Edinburgh Review*, contains a strong indication that English governmental methods are approximating to our own. Among other important changes in parliamentary procedure favorably reported by a select committee of the last Parliament were: 1, the division of the House of Commons into four standing committees of 160 members each, and the delegation of every bill, except money bills, to one of these standing committees; and, 2, the establishment of an effective closure. It is evident that the first change brings the rule of Parliament into line with Rule 10 of the House of Representatives. This change is very strongly advocated by Sir Henry Sumner Maine in his 'Popular Government' (pp. 236-

240). The second proposed reform, to cut off debate by a two-thirds instead of a proportionate majority, is only a half-way house on the road to closure by a simple majority. A bill to amend the system of private-bill legislation, prepared by Sir Lyon Playfair, Mr. Raikes, Mr. John Morley, and others, amends that system in exactly the way that our own was amended in 1855 by X. Statutes at Large, 612. The bill proposes to establish a commission, similar to our Court of Claims, to examine and report on private bills. The means of making the procedure of this commission simple and inexpensive are only slightly different from our own. The character of the United States Court of Claims has since been altered by XII. Statutes at Large, 765; but the New York State Board of Claims, established by Laws of 1883, Cap. 285, and amended by Laws of 1884, Cap. 60, tallies in every respect with the commission proposed in the English bill, except that appeals from its decisions are permitted on questions of law when the amount of the claim involved exceeds \$500.

—One of the most thorough, skilful, and entertaining pieces of work yet issued by the English Dialect Society is its new volume, 'Provincial Names and Folk-Lore of British Birds,' by the Rev. Charles Swainson (London: Trübner). The author is a member of the Folk-Lore Society, and has written a handbook of the weather branch of the general subject. Both societies have united in the present publication. The redbreast, nightingale, wren, swallow, magpie, crow, rook and raven, woodpecker, and cuckoo (the last especially), are richest on the side of folk-lore, *alias* popular superstition. It is hard to realize that the reputation of these birds (often contradictory in different countries or localities, as in the case of the swallow, which is generally the friend of man, but among the Celts is regarded as diabolical) is firmly believed in at this moment by populations supposed to be both civilized and Christian. In 1860 a cormorant, perching of a Sunday on Boston Church steeple, in Lincolnshire, excited forebodings speedily confirmed by the loss of a ship bearing 300 passengers, "amongst whom were Mr. Ingram, member for Boston, with his son, on the very morning when the bird was first seen." Some practices have outlived the superstition which gave birth to them, like the nailing of owls to barn doors (to avert lightning). The reason for burning the pigeon's feathers when making a pot-pie of this bird may likewise in time grow obsolete: it is to keep them from getting into a bed or pillow, and so making the occupant "die hard"—a topic lately touched on in these columns by a correspondent. Much curious information is conveyed in incidental discussions of proverbial sayings like "I have a crow to pluck with you," or "ducks and drakes" (the game of ricochet with stones on water). Under the Swan is told the story of Lohengrin; under the Partridge, that in some districts of France the weight of this bird as found on a given estate is considered "a fair standard test of the productiveness of the soil and of the state of agricultural skill"; under the Nightingale; that she sings by day also, and is "a very local bird, only partially distributed over England, being heard very rarely in Devon, never in Cornwall, neither in Scotland nor Ireland," though her habitat has no relation either to cowslips or to hops. Mr. Swainson draws his folk-lore from all quarters of the globe, including aboriginal North America. For literary purposes his glossary has a use illustrated in definitions of Spenser's "mavis [song thrush] with her whistle," Shakspeare's "ousel cock [blackbird], so black of hue, With orange tawny bill," or Wordsworth's "burring dor hawk [nightjar]."

—The *Moniteur des Intérêts Matériels* of

Brussels has, for sixteen years, been collecting statistics in regard to the issue of stocks and bonds of various kinds. The total issues of Europe and America for that period are stated at the enormous sum of twenty-one thousand million dollars. About half was used in refunding and retiring older loans, but, after all reductions, eleven thousand millions of new credit remains as a measure of the absorbing power of modern financial progress. The most significant thing about the figures for various years is their indication of the prevailing industrial condition. The vast credit issues of the time of excessive activity preceding 1873 is in striking contrast with the small emissions of the following period of reaction. The issues increase in the business revival of 1879, only to fall away again in the succeeding years of depression. In the words of Dr. Neumann-Spallart of Vienna (an investigator in the same field), it is from such tables of credit issues, rather than from any other sources, that we can best form judgments of the past and draw conclusions for the future. 1886 shows a continuation of business depression. Its issues, though exceeding those of the last four years, fell far short of those for 1879. They barely reached the average for the sixteen years from 1871 to 1886, though that time included a commercial crisis, two periods of depression, and but three or four years of full prosperity. The issues were, in 1886, \$1,342,000,000; in 1879, \$1,881,000,000; while for the whole period the average was \$1,335,000,000. The only consoling figures are those for Great Britain. Not only were her four hundred millions of issues double those of France, the next highest country on the list, but three-quarters were for productive private enterprises, while in France three-quarters were for State loans. In Germany, Austria, Sweden, Holland, and Belgium practically the whole business activity was in the conversion of old credit rather than in the issue of new. The fresh impetus acquired by the English a year ago has been in striking contrast with the "modesty or impotence of the Continent." As the *Moniteur* concludes, the most optimistic observer can only say that 1886 has seen the dawn of business revival in the West, in the renewal of British enterprise which gives promise of extending across the Channel.

—American issues for 1886 were one hundred and sixty-five millions, one hundred and twenty-two millions being for State and municipal loans, and forty-three for industrial enterprises. This, of course, only represents new securities listed, and is small even for that. It was a total greater than that of any other country except France and Great Britain, but small in comparison with the four hundred and nineteen millions of the latter. The forty-three millions for private enterprise are especially insignificant beside the three hundred and four millions so applied by the English. On the other hand, American issues were three times as great as English in the ten years following 1871. In every year since 1879 they have fallen far below the average for the past sixteen years—three hundred and fifty-eight millions. The conclusion must be, if these statistics show anything, that America does not yet share the business revival now in progress in England.

—The Duc de Noailles and Victor Hugo, both born in 1802, died within a week of each other in May, 1885. The French Academy had opened its doors to the former in 1849, to Hugo eight years earlier. Their successors were elected upon the same day, January 11, more than a year ago. M. Leconte de Lisle, the poet, who will occupy the chair of Victor Hugo, will be received at the next public session of the Academy by M. Alexandre Dumas. The journalist, M. Édouard Hervé, who succeeds the Duc de Noailles, has just been

received by M. Maxime Du Camp. This reception of February 10 was not a brilliant occasion. The new member pronounced the eulogium upon his predecessor in a quiet, sedate style, dwelling principally upon the only work of any importance of the Duc de Noailles, his *Life of Mme. de Maintenon*, and passing very rapidly over the rather uninteresting events of his political career. In his answer, M. Maxime Du Camp took no higher flight than that of the newly received member. He, too, spoke much of Mme. de Maintenon, so that it was cleverly said that from the addresses it might have been supposed that M. Hervé was succeeding Mme. de Maintenon herself rather than her historian. M. Maxime Du Camp has not a light hand, nor is his erudition sufficient to atone for a certain want of tact and taste displayed both in the blame and in the praise of which he is lavish. According to custom, he recounted the main phases of the life of the new member, addressing him personally the whole time in a way which could be gratifying only to a man of less solid qualities than those which have raised the successful journalist of the Orleans party to the rank of an Academician:

ADAMS'S EMANCIPATION OF MASSACHUSETTS.

The Emancipation of Massachusetts. By Brooks Adams. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887. Pp. 382.

ALTHOUGH Mr. Adams has not written a great book, he has done some service by his violent attack upon the received estimate of the founders of Massachusetts. Very possibly the filial reverence of recent historians has led them to excessive praise of the Puritans, and to an unfair attempt to palliate or deny the mistakes of our early colonists. If so, Mr. Adams has furnished their opponents with an impassioned recital of all the faults, real or imaginary, with which his ancestors have been charged. Filled with rage against the Puritan clergy as a class, he reiterates certain charges against them with tiresome monotony, and finally leaves the reader in utter darkness as to the object of the entire volume. 'The Emancipation of Massachusetts' is a catching title, but Mr. Adams fails to show from what she has been emancipated or by whom. His eleven chapters are, in effect, so many distinct essays on distinct subjects, connected only by his assumption that, in all these matters, the Puritan clergy were wrong and in most of them the clerical element was finally defeated. But these essays are very far from covering the whole period of the history of Massachusetts, even to the Revolution of 1776; and if everything he alleges were true, the reader would gain no idea of the real change in popular opinion from 1630 to 1770.

He starts with the idea that the first founders of the Massachusetts Colony came here with the intent of founding a Puritan State. This certainly is not a discovery made by Mr. Adams, as every previous historian was obliged to make the same statement. He proceeds to show that in so doing they exceeded their charter powers, especially in assuming to exercise the right to inflict capital punishment. Here again the charge is neither new nor important. Thousands of colonists, settled in a community so remote from the central power, could not be kept in order unless the right to inflict fines, imprisonment, and even death was conceded. The true question of interest is, Were the laws just and reasonable, and were they honestly and impartially administered?

To Mr. Adams's distorted vision everything seems wrong, because these laws contained, among other provisions, certain statutes directed against religious offences. Now it may be true

that recent historians have been desirous of throwing a veil over this part of the history, but no one has denied the fact that religious persecution existed in the colony, and that it was a blot on the record. But the defence was and is always the same: the colonists were not much in advance of the generation in which they lived. It was a time when human life was of much less account than now; a period when the death penalty was inflicted for what we consider trivial offences. Stealing was in many instances a capital offence, begging and vagabondage were punishable by many stripes, long imprisonments, and even death. Religious differences, as the Puritans had experienced, were settled by the banishment or death of the weaker party. We cannot expect that, under these circumstances, settling in a wilderness to enjoy their own ideas of freedom, the colonists would be disposed to allow any greater amount of toleration than other communities gave.

Mr. Adams has retold the story of Mrs. Hutchinson, the Baptists, the Quakers, and the Witches, without throwing any new light on these subjects. He has simply written dashing essays on matters which had been worn threadbare, and the highest praise we can give him is that he has used the standard printed authorities. His two chapters on "Brattle Church" and "Harvard College" are amusing specimens of his ambition to deal with the "emancipation" theory, but they are only bits of history, unconnected with what precedes or follows. His main proposition is, that the Puritan clergy dominated Massachusetts from the start, that they defied the English authority, and fought against all attempts to liberalize thought or legislation, but that, in some mysterious way not herein shown, the colony and province was "emancipated" from their control.

We must repeat that there is nothing new in this idea. No one can read even the most meagre history of Massachusetts without learning two things: (1.) The colony was founded by men who exiled themselves to enjoy their own ideal of a Christian commonwealth. However gloomy, distorted, or unreasonable that ideal was, they asked no one to join in it but those who believed in it. If they prohibited all dissent, it was on the ground that the New World was open to other communities, and that they had bought this little corner at a great price. Even according to our modern ideas, they were right in this. They had banished themselves, they had parted with the conveniences of civilization, they had risked death in a strange land, all for the undisturbed enjoyment of their consciences. The Antinomian, the Baptist, or the Quaker was an intruder, as unwelcome and as inexcusable as a Bonapartist in France or a Nihilist in Russia to-day—or, rather, as unjustifiable as a Russian Nihilist is to-day in New York. In the second place, it is evident that in 1770 this community had developed into one of the most pronounced and decided in its democracy of any then existing. Kingcraft and priestcraft were both at a discount in a Boston town-meeting.

It would be impossible in the limits of a review to do justice to such a topic. Not only the ability of a Macaulay would be needed, but the space of one of his hundred-page essays, to traverse the ground, even with his powers of condensation. It may, however, be suggested that the "emancipation" was gradual, and that it was owing to general causes as much as local ones. A century only separates Cromwell from Chatham, but what a vast difference exists between the England of each. Another century brings us to Brougham, Gladstone, and Parnell, and a yet greater difference is apparent. But the world has moved as well as England, and the leaders are but the product of the times.

Undoubtedly the first generation of colonists

must be considered narrow-minded in some respects. They had personally suffered persecution, and they were ready to retaliate. But even if there had been non-intercourse with the outside world, the unmeasured freedom of life here would have softened the tone of succeeding generations. However, it so happened that they had an almost unlimited intercourse also with the outside world. They dwelt on the seaboard, and they took to the water with more than the average English avidity. Their vessels swarmed in the Atlantic, and new ideas were brought home on every trip. Some writer will yet give us a history of this "emancipation," or rather of this growth of freedom in thought and action, but he will not follow the line laid out by Mr. Adams.

We are by no means sorry that this book has been written. It will command readers, and its excesses will provoke replies. To the student it will be an amusing curiosity, a proof both of the vigor of the Adams stock and of its inherited tendency to forcible utterances. It will also be accepted as a sign that too much leniency has been shown heretofore to Puritan faults and defects, and that the time has come for a readjustment. Mr. Adams has also started two or three novel propositions, as, for example, that it relieves the mind to call the Mathers and Cottons and Nortons "priests" instead of "ministers." This indeed gives us pause, for, if true, it opens a new mode of vituperation. Again, he holds that these "priests" got up the American Revolution solely from hatred of the threatened establishment of bishops, and deliberately abdicated their unchecked control of the laity rather than share it. This is ingenious, but it suggests the baneful effect of long-continued perusals of Peter's History. We are not sure, indeed, but that these indications promise even more entertaining volumes in the future from Mr. Adams's pen. Once relieved from even a nominal connection with facts, he might write about Massachusetts to our undying delight. Motley began with a novel and ended with a history. Adams has begun with history, but we discern the possibilities of a brilliant novelist in him. The time is propitious, for already the public has wearied of the domestic novel. The author of 'King Solomon's Mines' and 'She' is evidently the coming man. New England has as yet had few romancers to use her past history in the like manner. We see no reason to doubt Mr. Adams's success, however, in this direction, and we would urge him to consider whether this may not in reality be his true vocation.

Should he still persist in being an historian, we hope that he will pardon us for suggesting that every censure which he utters will be quoted more for its parentage than its truth. Peter Oliver's book, a generation ago, was similar to this in many respects, but it was quoted mainly by our enemies because it was written by one of Puritan stock. It may be that Massachusetts needs to be scourged, but it does not follow that an Adams should wield the rod.

OLIVER'S MADAGASCAR.

Madagascar: An Historical and Descriptive Account of the Island and its Former Dependencies. Compiled by Samuel Pasfield Oliver, F.S.A., F.R.G.S., late Captain R.A. New York: Macmillan & Co. 2 vols.

CAPTAIN OLIVER modestly calls himself a compiler. To make a good compilation is in itself no slight task, but the two comprehensive volumes before us are much more than this. They form a veritable encyclopædia of Madagascar, its history, ethnology, government, industries, physical geography, natural history, sailing directions. Of the stores of information that lie scattered about in blue-books, diplomatic and consular reports, and official documents of all

kinds, as well as in reviews, scientific journals, and monographs, nothing seems to have escaped Captain Oliver's searching investigation. His personal observation and experience, from the time of his visit to the island in 1862, as aide-de-camp to Gen. Johnstone, have been supplemented by the accounts of Ellis, Sibree, Richardson, and the other English missionaries, from which he has drawn freely, as well as from the richer and more varied French literature on the subject. Of course the colossal work of M. Grandidier, in twenty-eight quarto volumes, when it is finished, will be the principal mine of information relating to Madagascar, but it will form a library in itself, and will never be generally accessible. Moreover, in Malagasy affairs it is hardly safe to trust to French accounts alone, which are inclined to lay all the misfortunes of the island, most unwarrantably, at the door of *la perfide Albion* and the London Missionary Society.

Captain Oliver's work, though not colossal, is copious, and must forthwith become the indispensable hand-book for any one who wishes to study Madagascar. More than half of it is taken up with the history and political institutions of the island, or rather of the Hóvas, for, politically speaking, the Hóvas represent the island. Since the early part of the century, when they emerged from the condition of a subordinate population under the leadership of Radàma, the Egbert of Madagascar, they have asserted and, to a great extent, maintained their supremacy over the other tribes. Indeed, Radàma did much more for Imèrina than ever Egbert did for Wessex. Like Peter the Great, he was a despotic reformer. In his reign, says Captain Oliver—

"the alliance with the British Government, the suppression of the slave trade, and the adoption of a general system of education on European lines, together with the introduction of Christianity and its civilizing influences into the very heart of the country, combined to lay the foundations of a stable and well-constituted state. Then, again, the subjugation of a considerable portion of the island, the formation of a large native army disciplined on European model, the reduction of the language to grammatical order and written form, the introduction of the printing press, and the diffusion of numerous branches of art by the mechanics and artificers of the London Missionary Society, were events which gave a marked character to the period during which the Hóva kingdom was established under Radàma I."

The story of the political development of the Hóvas from this starting-point, as the dominant race in Madagascar, though told without any attempt at embellishment, is one of absorbing interest. During the long reign of Ranavalona, the wife and successor of Radàma, there were many retrograde movements: the native superstitions were encouraged, Christians were persecuted, the entry of foreigners was checked, and the tribal wars were marked by the most barbarous atrocities. The young prince who succeeded to the throne in 1861, under the name of Radàma II., a sort of Malagasy Henri III., surrounded by a group of *mignons*, was unequal to the crisis, and, after two years of power, was assassinated with his favorites in the palace, a victim of court intrigues, partly religious and partly political. After his death a reaction set in, under Queen Rasohèrina. In 1864, Rainilaiarivony, a statesman of consummate ability and prudence, became Prime Minister, and since that time he has been the guiding spirit of the Hóvas. The two succeeding queens, Ranavalona II. and Ranavalona III., both women of high purpose and character, have served as a rallying-point for the loyalty of their subjects, and have encouraged and fostered their development; but the measures to which this development is due have been the work of the minister.

Capt. Oliver gives a large share of attention to the controversy of the last eight years with

France. The history of this dispute is a repetition of the old story of European aggression in the East. Starting with frivolous complaints, it has been carefully worked up by agents of the kind which every European State seems to keep in its employ for purposes of colonial aggrandizement—men with the adroitness of a country attorney and the instincts of a border ruffian, who, by a combination of bullying and sharp practice, backed up by men-of-war, are enabled to wring concessions from a weak and unsophisticated people. The history of the French claims, the Malagasy mission to Europe, the bombardment of Tamatave, the insolence of M. Baudais and Admiral Pierre, the dragging on of the quasi-war through three years, ending with the negotiation of the treaty of 1886, by which France was at last extricated from her entanglements, is still fresh; but it may be studied again with profit in the light of Capt. Oliver's singularly impartial narrative. One thing is clear throughout, that, had it not been for the sagacious statesmanship of Rainilaiarivony, his firm and dignified attitude, and his skilful preparations for defence, Madagascar would now be a French possession. Throughout the whole trying period, the Hóvas under his influence have shown a moderation, a self-restraint, a disciplined obedience, and an inflexible resolution to preserve their territory, which augur well for their future. According to Admiral Gore-Jones, who visited the capital in 1881, they "are now in that condition that they are ready to burst into perfect civilization"; and there is little doubt that if the policy of Rainilaiarivony can be continued a few years longer, the Hóvas will have raised themselves to the condition, of which Radama laid the foundation, of a "stable and well constituted state."

In conclusion, Capt. Oliver says: "In spite of the gloomy forebodings indulged in by the press from time to time on both sides of the Channel, there seems absolutely to be no pretext for any renewal of active hostilities, and the final settlement of the diplomatic dispute is, at last, within a measurable distance. The story of the Franco-Malagasy war may therefore be regarded as finished." In the light of the narrative, and of the history of European encroachments in half-civilized countries, this seems a rather optimistic opinion. On account of the ambiguity of certain phrases in the treaty of 1886, the Hóva Government only consented to ratify it upon the definite assurances of an explanatory note signed by the French plenipotentiaries. How these assurances are regarded by the French Government may be gathered from what passed in the Committee of the Chamber of Deputies appointed to examine the treaty. When asked whether he considered himself bound by the supplementary engagement, M. de Freycinet answered, with refreshing candor, "No; I hold only by the treaty." The situation, therefore, contains the elements of a very pretty misunderstanding, whenever France is ready to take up her policy of aggression. For the moment, the Republic is too busy at home to engage in projects of this kind; but it will be strange indeed if, upon the first relaxation of the existing pressure, the attempt is not made to repeat the programmes of Tunis and Tonquin in the African island. A campaign against the Hóvas, however, will be no child's play, and the French Government must be prepared for a heavy sacrifice in men and money before it undertakes the annexation of Madagascar.

A MODERN ITALIAN SCULPTOR.

Thoughts on Art and Biographical Memoirs of Giovanni Dupré. Translated from the Italian by E. M. Peruzzi, with an introduction by W. W. Story. Boston; Roberts Bros. 1886.

Giovanni Dupré. By Henry Simmons Frieze. With two dialogues on art from the Italian of Augusto Conti. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1886.

MODERN Italian sculpture in the idealistic vein is of slight account, and it is not surprising that the reputation of its greatest and worst master, Canova, should have led to a reaction in taste, and developed a realistic art which, while it is technically the most facile and masterly of modern schools, is mainly so trivial that it is difficult to find its parallel in any other school or branch of art. The school of Tenerani and the classicists, following that of Canova, has disappeared from the lists, and the best work of to-day, in general, is that which compares, in motive and scope, with the French *genre* school, ranging from Bouguereau in marble to Manet in terracotta. Whenever the grand style is attempted it makes a fiasco, with the exception of now and then a portrait, where the subject lends itself to a realistic heroism.

Giovanni Dupré has the credit of being the leader in a movement which was a widespread and natural reaction from the inanity of the grand style, in the hands of men whose intellectual and moral constitution made them incapable of entertaining the motives of anything truly grand, and who mistook the generalization of true subjective art for the characterlessness of indiscriminating imitation. Canova and all his school and followers, near or remote, mistook the typical for the unindividual, and the academic art of the beginning of this century did little else than perpetuate this confusion. Dupré had the advantage of having no classical or literary education, and therefore no classical prejudices or tendencies, and he came up with the thoroughly practical views of a clever craftsman, who had no theories to contend with or be helped by; and when finally he was led by his irresistible individual feeling to a strict imitation of nature, and produced a piece of realistic sculpture such as had never before been seen, and was considered a violation of all the canons of art, he was assailed by the authoritative critics (always the last to apprehend the value of a novelty) as a vulgarian, and by the artists as attempting to pass off a cast from life for a true study from nature. It was easy for him to prove that his "Abel," the statue in question, was an honest study from life, and, having defeated his critics on that tack, the force of the alternate criticism as to its essentially non-artistic character was destroyed by the fallacy, then and still a common one, that what is like nature is good art; and the objection that the statue was too truthful to be done by the methods of honest art having been triumphantly overturned, the art of the work was considered by the trial to have been proved. The critics were nearer right. "Abel" was but a skilful piece of realism, only by the technical qualities of imitation and execution redeemed from vulgarity.

The difference between the realistic sculpture of Italy and that of other nations, our own and the English included, is that the temperament of the Italians is aesthetic: the love of the beautiful, the harmonious, the artistic, is a part of their character, and is developed by their beautiful surroundings—the art of their great schools all round them constituting a perpetual, even if unconscious, education. The art of Dupré can hardly be said to be more than the result of unimaginative and unintellectual study of nature under the influence of this temperament and these surroundings. Beginning as a wood-carver in childhood, sculpture became his habitual method of expression; being an Italian, his nature was moulded to the national savviness and good taste; and these accessories made the difference

between his work and that of a sculptor like Hiram Powers, whose powers of execution and fidelity of imitation were of the same order, but who, lacking entirely the higher qualities of artistic susceptibility, produced statues which were realistic without taste, mastery, or knowledge of anatomy or action, and which remain simple vulgarisms, not redeemed, as were Dupré's, by any of the higher technical qualities.

The autobiography of an artist is, like all similar records, of an interest proportioned to its honesty and the genuine revelations of the character of the writer; and in these respects the present work is of a pathetic rather than artistic merit, because Dupré's nature was of a rare modesty and sincerity and (what is far rarer in Italian life) profound reverence. His ideas, except where they take plastic form, are in no wise remarkable, and the reader need never expect to get great light on the deeper problems of art, its philosophy, or its hidden sources. That he never comprehended even in his own art the fundamental distinctions which divide ideal from naturalistic sculpture, his discovery at Rome of a certain model shows:

"So it seems that without seeking for the cause of the contradiction between the living nature I had found in Florence and that which was represented in antique art, I had come to the conclusion that the Greeks and the Romans worked purely from ideas, and corrected nature according to that established rule which we call convention. Nothing is more erroneous than this notion, and the proof of it I found in Rome itself, as I will now tell."

He goes on to relate having met in the Trastevere a woman who reminded him of the Venus of Milo. "My dear reader, I do not exaggerate when I say that I seemed to look on the Venus of Milo." We need quote nothing more to show Dupré's total misapprehension of the principles of art. So far as his own art went, and the excellence of similar work, no doubt the critical capacity of such an artist is valid; but that Dupré had no clear conception of the higher elements of art is clear, first, from his having at that epoch, in the prime of his artistic life, no better conception of Greek art than is involved in his believing that the Greeks "corrected nature according to that established rule which we call convention," and in imagining that he saw the realization of the type of the Venus of Milo in any individual. A suggestion of the type certainly one may often see, but to say that "her head and neck, which alone were exposed to view, were as like that statue as two drops of water [are like each other]," is to show that he never looked carefully at the Venus of Milo or understood it.

To hope, therefore, to extract from Dupré's 'Thoughts on Art' anything to help us to solve the great problems, is to expect sunshine from cucumbers. He was not (as every executive artist has a right not to be) a thinker, and adds one more to the list of artistic arguments against the union of the synthetic and the analytic in one brain. If an artist can be a literary man, it is clear that he can only be so by sacrificing his artistic powers.

The translation of Mme. Peruzzi is, with here and there an exception, smooth, if not always idiomatic, English, but it has one of the worst faults a translation can have in the affectation of occasional transfers of Italian words to the English text, which is a clumsy way of showing the translator's familiarity with the original. Of the *Life* by Mr. Frieze, we can only say that its utter want of scale in judging its hero deprives it of the least value as art literature, and it has not the value, which the autobiography has, of the personal presence. When the author says that "we come now to the history of the 'Abel,' the masterpiece that brought the young sculptor

suddenly before the world as one of the princes of art," we have the measure at once of his knowledge of art and of the absurdity of his estimate of Dupré's statue. Honest, manly, youthful study of nature it was, and such as a young man may well be glad to have done as exercise; but to call it a masterpiece is to confound language and prove the incompetence of the writer to pronounce judgment on any work of art. The rank assigned Dupré by the general public was such as the general public is competent to assign—in its own judgment—but the art of Dupré is far below that which may be seen any day in Florence left by the sculptors of the Renaissance; honest, prosaic, common-sense it is, and nothing beyond.

The dialogues which Mr. Frieze has been at the trouble of translating are poor stuff, and have not even the charm of being natural. They are the stilted and academic verbiage of an amateur recording the compliments he would pay to the sculptor, and the dicta of a sculptor whose intellectual education was so deficient that he never gets beyond the commonplace, and continually falls into theoretical absurdities which show his limitations even more clearly than do his statues. The autobiography, while of no use as art literature, has the charm of the outpourings of a naïf, simple-hearted, and pure-minded man with interesting experiences, but Mr. Frieze's biography is waste literature, and the "conversations" phenomenal rubbish.

RECENT FRENCH BOOKS.

'PÊCHEUR D'ISLANDE' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), the last work of the author who writes under the name of Pierre Loti, has all the characteristic excellences of 'Mon Frère Yves,' which preceded it two or three years ago, and which came like a gust of salt sea air, fresh from the Breton coast, to Parisian readers of fine-spun pessimistic theories about commonplace people and events. Not that the characters in the present story, any more than those in the last one, are romantic or extraordinary. They are common Breton fisher folk, the young men and boys who go every spring to the Iceland fishing grounds, and the women, young and old, who wait for their return in the little group of scattered villages to which they all belong. The events, few and simple in themselves, are brought before the reader, rather than related, with a vividness and reality of which it is impossible to convey any idea to one who does not know this most real of idealists. The story is a series of dramatic scenes almost without dialogue, of pictures in which the painter's art does not come between the reality and the vision called up in the mind. The lives of the actors in the story pass before us with a surprising naturalness and simplicity, and yet with a certain reticence in the author that has a great charm. The book is nowhere spoilt by any attempt to say what is inexpressible in words, but rarely have words so simple, a manner so natural and unstudied, given such rich and complicated effects of poetic expression, or rendered with such pathetic beauty the simple lives they paint.

'Mon Frère Yves' marked a sudden development and deepening in the nature of the young writer, which is continued in 'Pêcheur d'Islande.' The explanation of this change is to be found in something besides the few added years of age since his first book was published, in 1879. Whoever is so fortunate as to have read, when still young, 'Mardi and a Voyage Thither,' and never to have removed the charm by a later reading, can have some idea of the land of dreamy enchantment into which 'Le Mariage de Loti' leads the reader. But if Herman Melville's almost forgotten, South Sea stories offer some elements of comparison with the earlier work of the young

lieutenant in the French navy who wrote this wonderful poem, in a language as simple and natural as prose, as picturesque and vivid as verse, what book in any language can be thought of to compare with the strange Senegambian idyl of the 'Roman d'un Spahi,' which came a little later, or the other works of the same period? The charm and delight of all these books is that they are the work of a man still very young, who has lived the life he pictures; who is evidently not a reader, and whose books are free from the echoes of other books; who is not a writer, in the sense that he follows none of the conventionalities of writing, and who gives the impression, if you ever think of examining the impression he makes upon you, that he is not writing for others, but for himself alone—not because he wishes to address an audience, but because he desires to note down what he sees taking place around him.

The author of 'Pêcheur d'Islande' and of 'Le Mariage de Loti,' whose real name is Julien Viaud, is a lieutenant in the French navy, most of whose life since boyhood has been spent at sea or in some of the naval stations in all parts of the world to which French men-of-war are sent. From the notes of his early years, with all the freshness of youth and reality about them, he wrote his first books, 'Aziyadé,' 'Le Mariage de Loti,' 'Le Roman d'un Spahi,' and the others. These are said to have been published, almost without change in many portions, from his letters and the journals, written from day to day, which he has kept. He says himself: "Je n'ai point même pris la peine de retoucher les lettres; elles sont là, brutales, ayant, pour ainsi dire, gardé le parfum de voyage, l'odeur de la mer." Some part of the surprising vividness and reality of his work is no doubt due to this instantaneous seizure of his youthful impressions in the strange tropical countries where so much of his life was passed in the comparative idleness of naval stations. The last few years have been very differently spent, in active service at the seat of war in Tonquin and the China seas, except a short interval when he was recalled in disgrace on account of a letter sent from there, which was published in the *Figaro*, containing a description of a battle in which he had taken part. This was considered by the authorities so cruelly realistic in its revelations of the savage feelings excited during a battle, as to deserve the punishment of a recall during active warfare. The punishment, however, lasted but a few months, and he was soon allowed to return to the command of his vessel. After this, in 1884 and 1885, he published, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, a series of articles which are among the most striking of his works. In these he conveys to the reader, in a way that is a continual surprise and delight, the impressions made upon him by the strange and ancient civilization and people around him, and the burning tropical lands and seas where even the odors were unfamiliar, and the light and air different elements from those he had been used to. It seems as if 'Mon Frère Yves' had been written in a state of reaction against these unsympathetic surroundings; and though 'Pêcheur d'Islande' was perhaps not begun until after the author's return to France early in 1886, it was conceived, at least, under the same influences, and completed while the repulsion against the regions he had left continued strong. In the spring of 1886 he was appointed to an important naval position at Rochefort, one of the great fortified ports of France. This was his native place; and at his home near the town, where he has since been living with his mother, he wrote 'Pêcheur d'Islande,' his best and most beautiful story.

'Madame Fuster' (Paris: Charpentier; Boston: Schoenhof) is one of the serious and powerful

books of M. Ferdinand Fabre, recalling 'L'Abbé Tigrane' and 'Lucifer,' but not with all their great attractiveness. This is partly owing to the subject itself, partly also to the characters and their surroundings. M. Fabre has never been fortunate when he has gone outside of a purely ecclesiastical setting for his stories, except when he has taken a rustic one. The ways and feelings of people belonging to the world, of dwellers in cities, of whatever rank they may be, have not given him happy inspirations. 'Madame Fuster' is the minutely studied picture of a religious bigot, and of her influence upon her own family and all connected with it, and also of the influence exercised upon her and through her by the *Ordre du Jugement-Dernier* and its Superior, the reverend Father Phalippou. This Superior of the *Jugement-Dernier* and his subordinates, male and female, clerical and lay, and all those portions of the book in which any of them appear, are extremely well done, and as interesting as they are powerful. It is only the characters of a different class, with whom the reader should sympathize and in whom he should be interested, that leave him unmoved at times, and this is only when the *Jugement-Dernier* is withdrawn into the background. But the strong interest excited, except by the powerfully drawn Superior of the Order, is never a pleasant one. The harsh bigotry of Mme. Fuster has nothing spiritual or even human about it; it is not to religious feeling or even to the Church that she subordinates everything, it is to the Order in its most material sense, to securing for it the wealth of her husband, the general Baron Fuster. This motive of the whole *Jugement-Dernier* is kept in sight from the first pages of the book, and it gives to it a hardness and coldness perhaps necessary for the completeness of the picture which the author wished to present, yet causing the reader to regret 'L'Abbé Tigrane' and 'Lucifer,' with their tempestuous passions and lofty ambitions.

This new volume of M. Ferdinand Fabre cannot fail to recall two others published during the last few years. One is a scarcely known but powerful novel by M. Henry Maystre, a Protestant minister of Paris, called 'L'Adversaire' (Paris: Ollendorff; Boston: Schoenhof) published in a volume last spring, but contributed during the previous year to the *Nouvelle Revue*. It is the account, painful and realistic in its simplicity, of the ruin brought about in a little Protestant congregation of the south of France by the appearance and influence there of the Salvation Army. The other is 'L'Évangéliste' of M. Alphonse Daudet (Paris: Dentu, 1883), in which the resemblances to M. Fabre's story rather than the contrasts, as in the last work, are striking. It is impossible, in reading the volume just issued, not to compare it with the brilliant narrative of the picturesque Daudet. But if any of the three writers owes anything to the others, it is not M. Ferdinand Fabre, for his work was published under another title several years before either of the others.

As long ago as 1877, six years before 'L'Évangéliste,' 'Madame Fuster' appeared under the title 'La petite mère' (Paris: Dentu; 4 vols., 12mo). These four volumes of the first edition have been compressed into the one now issued, but it is the same work as that of ten years ago; nothing essential has been omitted, and all the changes seem to be omissions made only for the sake of reducing its size to more usual dimensions. It must be confessed, however, that the one volume in which the work now appears is a solid one—more than 500 pages compactly printed. The original work seems to be unknown to the critics who have so far noticed 'Madame Fuster.' Without exception they have all spoken of it as an entirely new book. All this is certainly very strange in the case of so powerful and character-

ristic a story, by an author who is acknowledged to be among the first of the imaginative writers of the present day.

M. Hector Malot is one of the most prolific of French story-tellers, and one of the most widely read. He has written some interesting books, and one very charming one for boys, 'Roman Kalbris.' The last work which he has added to the long list of his novels is called 'Zyte' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: Westermann), and it is one of the best of his recent stories. Its beginning recalls that of 'Le Capitaine Fracasse.' The wagons of a troupe of itinerant actors are stopped upon the road, at some distance from their place of destination, by darkness and storm and the exhaustion of the horses, and the actors are presented to the reader very much in the manner that those of the famous troupe of that delightful romance are shown to us for the first time. But M. Hector Malot does not imitate Théophile Gautier, it is only a similarity in the opening situation that recalls 'Le Capitaine Fracasse,' as other passages in the book recall other situations in 'Le Roman Comique,' 'L'Homme qui rit,' 'The Old Curiosity Shop,' and a long series of familiar works. 'Zyte' is entirely modern, and, after the first third of the book, Parisian. The heroine, who gives her odd name to the story, passes from the little stage of the family troupe to that of the Odéon, and becomes a great Parisian actress. Both characters and story will interest and please a large circle of readers, as M. Hector Malot's books always do, but 'Zyte' is not a masterpiece of literary art, although executed with the skill of a practised workman.

'André Maynard peintre,' by Mme. Jeanne Mairret (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: Christern), appeared last summer in the feuilleton of the *Temps*, which of itself is a guarantee of a certain degree of excellence. It is an interesting and well-written story by a skilful writer. The events take place in the world of artists, at first in Rome and afterwards in Paris, and much of the inspiration which produced it seems to have been derived from the actual artistic life of the present time. It is, however, a very feminine book, in its merits as well as in its deficiencies. It has an atmosphere of purity and of honesty of purpose, without prudery, which is very agreeable; but it is almost entirely deficient in that artistic atmosphere which only long association with artists and comradeship with them in ways beyond feminine reach could give; yet the writer, who is the wife of M. Charles Bigot, as the daughter of Healy the artist, may be supposed to have had unusual facilities for observation. The women of the book are real, and not at all the ordinary conventional types; the men are not so well done, though there are occasional touches which show observation and insight where women often fail.

M. Henry Rabusson has already gained for himself a certain rank among the writers of *romans mondains*, of whom M. Octave Feuillet has long been the leader. His last story, 'Le Stage d'Adhémar' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), is not equal to 'Le Roman d'un fataliste,' the work in which he reached the highest level of accomplishment he has yet attained, but it is superior to anything else that he has written. M. Rabusson's books are always interesting; his characters are finely drawn, from nature and imagination almost equally, but they live and act consistently, and the reader is never offended by the improbable and the inharmonious, always so much more difficult to forgive than the impossible.

'Tzar, Archiduchesse et Burgraves' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Christern) is the collective title of three stories by Prince J. Lubomirski, to which he gives the sub-title "Fantaisies historiques," because, as he informs us in

his preface, he has allowed himself to take certain liberties with dates and events, while assuring us at the same time that "le procès de Marie Hamilton et les étranges destinées de Frohn et du bâtard de Reuss n'en restent pas moins des faits strictement historiques"—a rather enigmatical assurance, which tells us very little concerning the faithfulness to historic fact of the stories. But, faithful to history or not, the three stories are interesting; and the first one especially, 'Tzar,' has a flavor of the savage court of Peter the Great which seems very real.

Seventeen Lectures on the Study of Medieval and Modern History and Kindred Subjects, delivered at Oxford, under statutory obligation, in the years 1867-1884. By William Stubbs, D.D., Bishop of Chester, etc. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1886. 8vo, pp. 399.

THE seventeen lectures contained in this volume are about half of those delivered "under statutory obligation" by Bishop Stubbs, during his occupation of the Regius Professorship of Modern History at Oxford. He is careful to emphasize, not only on the title-page, but in the preface, and on various occasions in the course of the lectures, that they were delivered "under statutory obligation," and it would not, therefore, be the fault of the ingenuous reader if he should find the work perfunctory and heavy in style. What we are told to believe, we are prone to believe. Some of the lectures have, we must confess, somewhat of a perfunctory character; but even these fairly warrant us in saying that nothing which a scholar of the eminence of Bishop Stubbs puts in print carefully and deliberately is without great and positive merit.

Eight of the lectures are general in character, treating chiefly of methods of historical study; and all of these are marked by solid excellence and sound judgment. Five others—upon the literature of Henry II., upon Canon Law in England, and upon the medieval kingdoms of Cyprus and Armenia—are exceedingly valuable as repertoires of valuable and not generally accessible information. The remaining four, upon Henry VII. and Henry VIII., are, to our thinking, the best in the volume. It has always been noted of Bishop Stubbs as an historical writer, that he is exceedingly just and sagacious in the analysis and delineation of character. We have never seen this characteristic more happily displayed than in these four lectures. We suppose that their peculiar freshness and interest come from the fact that their subjects are really fresher in the mind of the author, as his work has, we believe, lain of late largely in the early years of the Tudor period. Dr. Stubbs's opinion of these two kings is on the whole better than that of the average of historians:

"Henry VII. was a virtuous man, sober, temperate, and chaste, withstanding great temptations to vice and an abundant store of loose example. His household was kept frugally and severely; all his advisers, except Empson and Dudley, were men of character unstained, if not energetic for good. For one better or greater king, there are in European history fifty smaller and worse. But still—there is any of that self-denying devotion which gives itself for the people? Is there any true conception of the duty of a shepherd of the host? Is there any impulsive well-doing? I can see none. I see a cold, steady, strongly-purposed man, patient, secret, circumspect; with not many scruples, yet not regardless of men's opinions; very clear-sighted; very willing to wait for reconciliation where there is a chance, and not hasty where vengeance is the only course, but ruthless where his own purpose is directly endangered, and sparing neither friend nor foe where he is not strong enough to rely on himself alone. It may have been a nature too cold to care for popular love, or too self-contained to condescend to court it;

there is no evidence that Henry VII. ever dreamed of winning it" (p. 370).

Henry's title to the throne is admirably and lucidly discussed in Lecture xv. He says (p. 345): "It is quite possible to maintain that he was King of England by hereditary right," but adds, in speaking of the Pope's bull of 1486, which declared in favor of his title: "Perhaps the good old man swore a little too hard; the accumulation of reasons may show that Innocent VIII. had some misgiving."

It is worth while also to quote the long passage (p. 289) in which Bishop Stubbs sums up the character of Henry VIII.:

"I have grounds for believing that Henry VIII. was the master, and in no sense the minister, of his people: that, where he carried their good will with him, it was by forcing, not by anticipating or even educating it. I am obliged altogether to reject the notion that he was the interpreter in any sense of the wishes of his people; the utmost that he did in this direction was to manipulate and utilize their prejudices to his own purposes. I allow fully the truth of the theory that one great principle of his policy was to obtain for his measures, for all his measures, the acquiescence of his people, and thus to invest them with a safe, irrefragable authority; but I must add that he knew how to turn opposition into acquiescence, or to take acquiescence for granted.

"And now let me confess that I do not think so badly of Henry VIII. as the received views of either his advocates or his enemies would suggest. The unhappy, most unhappy, history of his wives has brought upon him an amount of moral hatred which is excessive. Nine kings out of any ten whom you may pick out of the list would have saved their character for humanity by simple self-indulgence. No absolutely profligate king could have got into the miserable abyss in which we find Henry VIII. struggling during the latter half of his reign. I do not believe that he was abnormally profligate; in this region of morality he was not better perhaps than Charles V., but he was much better than Francis I., and Philip II., and Henry IV. But he was cruelly, royally vindictive; there was in him an ever-increasing, ever-encroaching self-will, ever-grasping, and grasping more and more of power: a self-will guided by a high intellect, and that sort of sincerity which arises from a thorough belief in himself. I am not prepared to deny that deep, cunning, unscrupulous men, like Cromwell, traded on their knowledge of his character; but not one of those who tried to work their own ends through Henry escaped the doom to which false friends and open foes alike found their way."

Perhaps the most interesting point in the lectures of a more general character is the passage in Lecture iv. in which Bishop Stubbs declares himself in a degree opposed to the theory of the unity of history, with which Mr. Freeman has so thoroughly identified himself:

"This idea," he says (p. 84), "has a truth only in the very highest regions of speculation.

Why, then, should not cycles of history, two, three, or more cycles of history, be allowed to exist, within which all the really important factors have their origin and development, and, it may be, work out their full destiny; successive great dramas of ages, the interest of which is self-contained, although there is enough of common ground between them and those which precede and follow to give them a simple continuity, and although there is doubtless in the divine mind one great plan of cosmical action in which each drama of the human ages serves as a single act or even a single incident? Let Scripture history, classical and ecclesiastical history, medieval and modern history be read successively and connectedly, so much the better; but why deny that classical history and medieval and modern can be advantageously studied apart? Why confine the thoughts to the points on which they are contentious, continuous, and agreed, to the exclusion of those in which they differ, when it is on the points in which they differ that the great contributions to the real history of man are to be traced? In any other sense than that in which I have attempted to limit it, the unity of history is either the crotchet of a sciolist or the dream of a universal philosopher."

Mr. Freeman is certainly no sciolist, nor is his forte the philosophy of history; we suppose that, after all, his view does not differ essentially

from that here expressed, except in emphasis; but it is in difference of emphasis that much of our difference of opinion exists.

The Venerable Bede, expurgated, expounded, and exposed. By the Prig, author of 'The Life of a Prig.' Henry Holt & Co. 1886.

'THE LIFE OF A PRIG' was not a more palpable hit than its author's latest venture. The satire here does not begin to be so broad as in the former skit, but it is not, on this account, less enjoyable or effective. That it will be enjoyable for all who read it, or might do so, is hardly possible. The Roman Catholics will enjoy it; the dissenters generally will do so; the free-thinkers also. Whether members of the Established Church will do so will depend partly on their sense of humor and partly on their shade of Anglicanism. The latitudinarians and "attitudinarians" will enjoy it much, albeit for very different reasons. The "platitudinarians," i. e., the Low Churchmen, not so much, because it is against them that the satire is for the most part directed. But there are some whose sense of humor is so keen that they can enjoy a little satire at their own expense, and though the "platitudinarians" have, perhaps, less humor than the latitudinarians, they are not all devoid of it, and we may expect a good many of them to laugh heartily over this merry criticism of certain inconsistencies and follies of the English Churchman of to-day.

The authorship of this book and its forerunner has been attributed to Mr. Mallock. They certainly are not unlike his manner as it appears in several of his acknowledged books. But if they are his, he appears to better advantage in them than in such books as 'The New Paul and Virginia' and 'A Nineteenth Century Romance.' There is nothing here of the salacious sort, but there is a lack of delicacy, a certain coarseness, together with the real brightness of the satire, that makes Mr. Mallock's authorship seem extremely probable.

The writer may not be a Roman Catholic. It is quite possible to imagine him a dissenter, or even an agnostic; but it is evident that, in the controversy between Anglicanism and Romanism regarding their degrees of venerableness and priority, his sympathies are with the Roman Catholics. His satire has a double operation. It kills two birds with its one stone: first, the habit of distorting history in the interests of special doctrines or emergencies; and second, the eagerness of certain Anglicans to show that their church is not of Roman Catholic parentage, but is descended directly from the ancient British Church, centuries older than the mission of Austin as a representative of the Roman See. The author's method is to take passage after passage from Bede, using Dr. Giles's translation, and then add his comment, which is generally much fuller than the text. The devices that are resorted to by Anglicans to show that their church had never any taint of Roman practices and superstitions are not satirized more severely than they deserve to be. The miracle-working of the early British Christians, their relics, and masses, and so on, are all subjected to an amusing commentary—are all, as they appear in Bede, denied as spurious, or explained away in some ridiculously insufficient manner. For example, when the Bishop Germanus applies a casket of relics to the eyes of a blind girl, who at once receives her sight, we are told that "in all probability he projected it, propelled it, or, as boys would vulgarly say, 'shied it' at the girl's eyes, which were immediately delivered from darkness and filled with the light of truth." "Obviously this means that when the girl perceived that a Bishop threw a casket of relics at her head, she saw clearly enough that he set no value on them." The pat-

ronage of Roman Catholic services by Anglicans travelling on the Continent comes in for a portion of the satire. Bede's account of the arrival and reception of St. Austin calls for a more violent ingenuity than anything preceding it to establish the independence of the English Church on the Roman Catholic. Then it was that the ancient British Church went to sleep for a thousand years and only awakened in time to solemnize the nuptials of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn. In conclusion, the Prig thinks it is high time that the Roman Catholic Church took her turn and went metaphorically to bed. "She has been uncommonly wide awake during the last eighteen hundred years! I, for one, think that a thousand years of sound sleep would be very nice for her. Cannot the science of the nineteenth century devise a narcotic for this wakeful and restless patient?"

The Republic of New Haven. A History of Municipal Evolution. By Charles H. Levermore, Ph.D. Baltimore: N. Murray. 1886.

THIS was the first of the extra volumes in the series of Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. The purpose of the book is to trace the social and political history of New Haven from the foundation of the colony to the present time.

The original settlement was singularly free from the outside influences which helped determine the character of many of the colonial communities, and its peculiar institutions and customs were well defined before it was brought into close contact either with the other colonies or with England. The church and other strong internal influences also developed the town's individuality, which was allowed to become permanent by the slow and usually uniform growth of population which lasted for more than two centuries.

The community has an unusual variety of local governments. The original organization of the New England town is still retained, and New Haven is probably the only example in history of a democracy which allowed 16,000 electors to meet in a popular assembly to lay taxes and exercise other important legislative and administrative functions. In the midst of the town a city has grown up, and of late years has become a manufacturing and railroad centre with a population of 70,000. Just beyond the boundaries of the city, but within the limits of the town, lies another municipality, with full corporate powers, called the Borough of Fair Haven East. Besides these organizations, the town contains three separate school districts, one of which includes the whole city and has a distinct and peculiar government of its own. Mr. Levermore traces the rise and development of these various institutions, shows how they have acted upon each other, and points out the controlling forces which have made them what they are. He has examined thoroughly the large amount of historical material at his disposal. The matter incorporated in this book is well arranged, and the statements of fact are usually full and accurate.

The last two chapters of this volume have been republished in the regular series of Johns Hopkins Studies. They are more carefully written than the earlier portions of the book, and their style is better. These chapters give the history of the government of New Haven from the granting of the first city charter in 1784, with a good description of the government as it is now. It is to be regretted that an author so well qualified for the work has not paid more attention to the causes which led to the successive changes in the city charter, and in the laws that control the other institutions which he discusses. One of the greatest needs of the student of municipal affairs

is information concerning the merits and demerits of the various systems under which our cities have been governed in the past, and concerning the circumstances under which these systems were tested. Of course such information is hard to obtain, as it must usually be collected from those who have held office under these governments and can speak from personal observation of how the political machinery in question worked. The affairs of any large municipality are complicated and difficult to understand, and the peculiar circumstances under which an experiment in local government is tried are frequently such as to cause a bad form of government to work fairly well, or a good form to fail to produce the beneficial results which were reasonably expected. These are facts which the man in public life appreciates, but which men like Mr. Levermore, who learn more about municipal affairs in their studies than in the city hall, sometimes fail to take into account. These remarks apply particularly to the closing chapter of the book, in which the author points out the defects in the government of New Haven, and suggests remedies. Many of his criticisms are, however, very just, and it is to be hoped that some of the reforms which he proposes may be tried.

While this book has a special value for the people of New Haven, the general student of municipal government will find in it much that is interesting and instructive.

A Half-Century in Salem. By M. C. D. Silsbee. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887.

WHEN one has read this little book, he tries in vain to fix the charm of it. There are but a hundred small pages, which have grown out of a paper read by the author to her friends some years ago; and the substance of them is a series of scenes from the old life of Salem in its East-India age, to which her own memory goes back. There are many of these, and many figures in them, drawn from home-life or from the shops, the streets, the wharves, the pulpit, and the ball-room; and the background of the whole is the tradition of Salem, which is in itself a kind of spell. These Democrats and Federalists, who were opposed to each other even in the order of their courses at dinner (for the Federalist took his pudding first and then his meat), were very great partisans, according to our ideas, when, in consequence of the feud, the founder of the Gray family thought it best to remove his Democratic self and his wealth to Boston; but, on the other side, the Thanksgiving dinner of the Pickerings seems to have been a gathering of friendly people, and one reads of one minister, Dr. William Bentley, the patriot of the war of 1812, who had so much of the milk of human kindness in him that, in the absence of a priest, he confessed a poor French woman, as he knew her language, and gave her absolution. But one does not need to describe the well-known community of men and women of the old time, with their stately yet cordial ways, their eccentricities, their vigor and character, of whom the best made that union of severity with nobleness which always wins great reverence for a man's memory. In this fragmentary and informal sketch of the time, the young people relieve the dignity of provincial splendor with their dances, sleigh-rides, and the charms of beauty with which the famous Harvard Class of '29 is said to have been well acquainted. There is a description, too, of Capt. George Crowninshield's *Cleopatra's Barge*, which was the forerunner of our luxurious yachts, and spread American glory in the Mediterranean with more effect than any of the later fleet of pleasure-boats; but, rather than detail the points of the volume, it is better to leave them to the reader's discovery.

The manner and the spirit of these recollections are very kindly, with the touch of the gentleness and human patience, as well as of the transforming regret, of old age. One more memorial has been added to days which will long retain a place in New England history; and if any one, not born to the tradition of the privateers and the merchantmen of this coast, has a taste for the events and aspects of quiet, picturesque, provincial life, he cannot find a book more pleasantly and richly suggestive, or one that will lead his fancy more agreeably to the old days.

Legends and Popular Tales of the Basque People. By Mariana Monteiro. With Illustrations in Photogravure by Harold Copping. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1887. 8vo, pp. vi, 274.

THE title of this work is very misleading, for one would suppose from it that he had before him a collection of stories such as are told by the Basque people. The truth is, that the authoress has dressed up in a very un-English garb a few local traditions, and translated a few ballads of doubtful popularity. Two examples will show the utter worthlessness of the book for the student of popular traditions. One of the most common themes in popular tales is that of a person who, overhearing the secret of a witch, learns the means of curing a princess who is at the point of death. A second person, who tries to follow the example of the first, is discovered by the witch and torn to pieces. Versions of this theme may be found in Grimm's "The Two Travellers" and Crane's "Italian Popular Tales," p. 325, and a genuine Basque version in Rev. Wentworth Webster's "Basque Legends," p. 66. Now, Mme. Monteiro has taken this theme, located it on a certain mountain in the Basque country, and turned it from a fairy tale into a tradition of the neighborhood. What the Basque story really is may be seen from Webster's collection or from Cerquand's "Légendes et Récits populaires du Pays Basque," Pt. iv, p. 48. The other case is that of the legend of Roland at Roncevaux. Mme. Monteiro might easily have given some interesting popular legends of Roland, who is still the hero of a romance in the Basque land (see Cerquand, iv, p. 14), but she has preferred to give a modern hunting adventure, to which the legend bears the smallest possible relation.

Those who wish to learn something about Basque popular literature will still be obliged to look for it in the works above mentioned, and in J. Vinson's "Le Folk-Lore du Pays Basque." The reader in search of entertainment can spend a pleasant hour over a book that will transport him to a fresh locality, and which is full of charming poetic feeling, although not always expressed in very smooth English. The four illustrations by Mr. Copping do not call for any special mention by way of praise.

A Practical Rhetoric for Instruction in English Composition and Revision, in Colleges and Intermediate Schools. By J. Scott Clark, A.M., Professor of Rhetoric in the College of Liberal Arts, Syracuse University. Henry Holt & Co. 1886.

THERE is no study commonly taught in schools

for which it is more difficult to provide a serviceable text-book than the much-abused one of rhetoric. The older manuals are full of disquisitions, no doubt admirable in comprehensive and searching criticism of the principles of composition, but unprofitable for the grade of pupils whom it is meant to reach. The failure is the common one which attends on all attempts to teach a practical art by words instead of by use of the tools; for the end of rhetoric is to instruct pupils how to do something—namely, to speak and write in proper form—and the older text-books sought to effect this mainly by elaborate and usually wordy expositions of past methods, instead of by direct and fruitful practice. Of late years rhetorics have been improved by the insertion in them of pages of examples to be corrected, and this is the principal gain that has been made. Prof. Clark has adopted this plan on a very extensive scale, and he has also had the sense to cut down the disquisition portion, which is largely a matter of tradition, to reasonable limits, and has certainly relieved it of its worst redundancies. His new text-book is of about the same bulk as the traditional one, but it includes the whole subject, from punctuation and capitalizing to metres, and treats it under the old heads—Clearness, Purity, Persuasion, etc. The text proper, however, consists of brief, clear, and well-worded rules, with an illustrative example under each; and each chapter is supplemented by pages of excellently chosen examples to be corrected, by the application of the preceding set of rules. The method is very rigorously adhered to. The result is, what the author puts upon the title-page as the characteristic description of his text-book, 'A Practical Rhetoric,' and the adjective is well deserved; for while it contains the rules, its object is to instruct by working them out, just as in arithmetic. For the basis of correct writing there can be no better preparation; and as to style, ornament, and the graces of expression, all that may well be left to the individual's growth in taste, out of which it must come spontaneously, unless it is to be artificial, pretentious, and worthless. We cordially recommend the volume to the attention of teachers.

Nordafrika im Lichte der Kulturgeschichte. In gemeinverständlicher Darstellung von Gustav Diercks. Munich. 1886.

SINCE the conquest of Algeria by the French, the author remarks in his preface, the interest of civilized nations in the northern coast-lands of Africa has constantly been growing, keeping pace with that enlisted in colonizing purposes by the gradual unlocking of the unknown interior of the continent, and in commercial enterprises by the opening of water communication between the Mediterranean and the Indian Ocean through the Suez Canal. These latter achievements have rendered the possession of the North-African territories more valuable than ever, and a knowledge of their present condition and historical development very desirable. Special works on Egypt, ancient or modern, on Carthage, Algeria, etc., of course, abound; but a connected picture of the history of all these countries, of their advances and relapses in the course of ages, has

been wanting in general literature, and to supply it is the aim of this book. It is not intended to be exhaustive, learned, or in any way "doctrinaire." It means to group the most marked events, to point out salient characteristics, to illustrate the successive unfoldings, and especially to define clearly the latest developments.

This plan has been strictly adhered to, and very creditably carried out. In a popular and pleasantly animated manner, the writer sketches the North-African races in general; the Egypt of the Pharaohs, its character and wondrous achievements; the Carthaginians and their struggles with Rome; the culture of Cyrene and Alexandria, and the growth of Christianity, under Roman sway and Jewish influences, in the Nile lands; Vandals and Byzantines in their contests for Christianized Carthage; the Arab conquest, and the sway of Islam over the whole coast, from Pelusium to Morocco; Corsairs and Turks in the Barbary States, and the European expeditions against them, down to the conquests of Algeria and Tunis by France; Egypt under Mehemet Ali and his successors, down to Tewfik; and the present rivalries of the European Powers for predominance on the African coast. The picture is exceedingly varied, but it does not lack unity, and symmetry is preserved throughout. Characters and traits apt to strike the imagination are preferably selected, but sensationalism is avoided, and so is every display of erudition. A rigid abstention in this regard, coupled with general correctness in what is popularly presented, almost disarms criticism. The "gemeinverständliche Darstellung," however, has here and there caused some vague talk about conditions of culture, and occasionally too light a touch upon grave matters—as, for instance, when the author, in the beginning of the chapter on "Christianity and Vandals," hints, in scanty words, at the theories deriving the origin of the Christian religion from the speculations of the Stoics, and "especially of Seneca, who created an abstract ideal of a perfect godlike man, whose embodiment Jesus so completely appeared to be that modern criticism might dare, on this ground, to deny his personality." This may also serve to illustrate the wide range of the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, M. General Grant: An Estimate. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
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Boselli, le Comte. La maison d'Armagnac et l'unité française depuis le xve siècle. Boston: Schoenhof.
Bourciez, E. Les Mœurs polies et la littérature de cour sous Henri II. 8vo. Boston: Schoenhof.
Burnley, J. The Romance of Invention: Vignettes from the Annals of Industry and Science. Illustrated. Cassell & Co. \$1.50.
Calthrop, Rev. G. Eden to Patmos: Scenes and Incidents in Bible History. Illustrated. Frederick Warne & Co. \$2.
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